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ABSTRACT

At this workshop, representatives of Canadian provincial teachers' associations came together to share information and discuss appropriate policy directions related to the evaluation and supervision of teachers. This report contains the texts of four major presentations and a summary of a panel presentation made at the meeting. The first presentation, on issues in teacher evaluation, discusses problems with the teacher evaluation process, including techniques, policies and procedures, goals, classroom observation, criteria, and rating forms. The second presentation, on the legal dimensions of teacher evaluation, focuses on the use of a teacher evaluation system to provide a basis for teacher dismissal, citing relevant provincial legislation and court cases. In the third presentation the speaker reviews research on teaching effectiveness and teaching strategies that can be used as a basis for teacher evaluation. The fourth presentation reviews advantages and disadvantages of several teacher evaluation techniques. A brief final section of the report presents a panel discussion on the appropriate outcomes of teacher evaluation. (Author/JM)

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A CTF CONFERENCE REPORT

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REPORT OF THE 1982 WORKSHOP ON

TEACHER EVALUATION

EA 015 190

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TEACHER EVALUATION

Report of a Workshop held in
Ottawa, Ontario, May 17-19, 1982

Canadian Teachers' Federation
110 Argyle Avenue
Ottawa, Ontario
K2P 1B4
September 1982

PREFACE

The evaluation and supervision of teachers has always been of interest to educators. However, in recent years, this topic has attracted more than its usual share of attention. As a result, various provincial agencies have engaged in studies, conferences, identification of issues and development of policy.

In view of this increased interest, it seemed appropriate for the Canadian Teachers' Federation to sponsor a workshop at which representatives of the provincial teachers' associations could share information and discuss appropriate policy directions.

The workshop featured major presentations on 1) the issues in teacher evaluation, 2) the legal context, 3) the developments in teacher effectiveness research and 4) the advantages and disadvantages of various evaluation techniques. Also included was a panel presentation by three of the workshop participants on appropriate outcomes of evaluation. Considerable opportunity for small group discussion was provided as well. The workshop was chaired by Mr. Gregory O'Keefe, President-Elect of the Federation.

This report contains the texts of the four major presentations and a summary of the concluding panel.

Geraldine Gilliss
Director, Research and
Information Services, CTF

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DILEMMAS IN TEACHER EVALUATION

EDWARD S. HICKCOX
Department of Educational Administration
The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education

> *Teacher evaluation is a disaster. The practices are shoddy and the principles are unclear. Recent work has suggested some ways to clarify the issues and to make the procedures more equitable and reasonably valid, but one cannot yet point to a single exemplary system in which the practices come near to matching our knowledge.*
>
> *Michael Scriven (1981, p. 244)*

This comment could be overlooked if it did not come from an individual so highly respected in the field of evaluation as Professor Scriven, or if it were not echoed in countless other statements by academics and practitioners both in Canada and the United States, although perhaps not with the same degree of condemnation.

Scriven's comments, by the way, go on to lay the blame for the sorry state of affairs directly on the universities, rather than on the schools. His point is that sound research on the topic, particularly on ways of implementing what we have already discovered about evaluation, has not had a high priority in the universities. As a result, the schools have tended, through no fault of their own, to perpetuate practices carried on for decades. Wood and Pohland (1979) document this very well in their analysis of rating forms.

My administrative officer, on reading Scriven's quote, suggested that I should stop my presentation at that point, collect my expense money and go home, there being no point in addressing the topic any further. Neither you nor I, however, will be so fortunate.

While I agree in principle with most of what Scriven says, and certainly I have not found an exemplary system in the several that I have looked at, I would say that things are happening in the field of teacher evaluation, or starting to happen. I mean that activities, activities such as this very conference, are ongoing in the schools, at the government level, and, to a small extent, in the universities. This offers some hope, in my view, that substantive progress can be made at the level where it really counts, that is at the level of teacher performance in the classroom and student learning and development. I am encouraged, for example, that within the past month the Ontario Ministry of Education has sent out tenders for a major study of teacher and administrator evaluation. There is important work going on in Canada and internationally in an effort to determine in a research sense just what teaching behaviours lead to student gains. There are an enormous number of conferences, professional development activities, and efforts by individual school systems to work at improving evaluation systems.

These activities do not negate Professor Scriven's comment, because we really do not see any massive impact on what goes on in classrooms as a result. But the enormous pressure and energy emanating from these efforts suggests that there is a glimmer of hope for the future in this area. We in the university as well as you in the schools will have to respond sooner or later with more than lip service and more than endless discussions about what ought to happen. Shortly, we shall have to start doing it.

Before delving into some specific issues and problems, I would like to take a brief time to describe what I did to prepare for this presentation. First, I relied on some of my own work in this area, the most recent pertinent item being the monograph published by Doris Ryan and myself called Redefining Teacher Evaluation (1980). One cannot, after all, present a paper without referring to one's own work as central to the entire effort. I also tried to find some up-to-date work done in Canada and have included two recent items, by Levin (1982) and Keeler (1981). Perhaps the most significant series of activities occurred at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in New York where I attended as many sessions as I could which dealt with teacher evaluation. And there were many. The most significant of these sessions, in my view, was a presentation by Michael Knapp (1982) of SRI International (formerly Stanford Research Institute) in which he reviewed current practices relative to questions of process. Less impressive but still interesting was a similar presentation by Fox and Egan (1982). I also spent some time with my old professor, Jason Millman from Cornell, whose book Handbook of Teacher Evaluation (1981) is quite a good overview of major issues and positions. The other basis for comments in this paper is my own experience of over ten years in teacher evaluation, involving a large number of workshops and many discussions with teachers, administrators and academics.

Let me hasten to add that I don't consider myself as any more than partially knowledgeable about teacher evaluation. I have done some study but have not devoted all my professional energies to it. Furthermore, up until now, at least, there has been little or no research money available in Canada to engage in really systematic efforts. Let us hope that will change.

The Current State of Knowledge

Relative to what seems to be going on in research and development, Knapp (1980, p. 2) identifies four general approaches as follows:

a) observation of in-class behaviour;
b) assessment of the outcomes of classroom teaching;
c) performance tests of teaching abilities;
d) assessment of teaching "know-how" by written tests.

Historically, and I have no precise measurement of this, we have placed the most emphasis on studying classroom behaviour of teachers, development of rating scales, and methods of observing through the use of check lists. Current efforts are moving more toward the assessment of outcomes and the attempt to identify causal relationships between teaching behaviours or classroom environment and student learning. The third approach, the notion of competence in terms of categories of teaching abilities, has been championed over the years by Bruce Joyce and his associates. While his work has been widely discussed and tried out in a variety of settings, I would not say that this approach has permeated any significant number of classrooms compared to the total. The notion of teacher testing through some vehicle such as the National Teacher Exam has not been widely accepted either in the academic world or the practitioner world.

At the school level, there are many interesting examples of efforts to develop sound evaluation policies and practices. In Ontario, with which I am most familiar, many boards are working hard. Doris Ryan and I referred particularly to the Halton Board of Education efforts. Many other boards are engaged in serious study. Federations across the country either have or are developing positions relative to evaluation. The Alberta Teachers' Association has an extensive statement. (Keeler, 1981) Referring again to Scriven's comments, however, I find all of these efforts less than adequate in terms of impact on classroom performance. For one thing, there is often a huge gap between what is written down and what is done, and many of the policies and procedures under development do not take into account rather fundamental things we know about teacher evaluation. I will return to this theme later.

There are other kinds of efforts, though, that while not traditionally linked to teacher evaluation are perhaps crucial to any serious effort to improve instruction. Doris Ryan (1981) urges very strongly, in a paper presented last year to the administrators in Ontario, that attention be paid to strategies outside the traditional parameters of evaluation systems, strategies and innovations such as mastery learning or self-help devices for self-evaluation.

Policies and Process

In my own work in the past two or three years I have called attention at the system level to the need for the development of sound policies and procedures. One of the most telling experiences I have had in this regard occurred last year. I was called as an "expert" witness for a teacher undergoing a Board of Reference. Teachers who have been dismissed in Ontario may ask the Minister to appoint a tribunal to hear the case. This semi-judicial review is called a Board of Reference. In this particular case, one of the major problems was that the policies and procedures by which evaluation was administered in the school system were sadly lacking in specificity, consistency, and rationality. This placed both the teacher and the administration in an extremely vulnerable position. The teacher could argue that he was subjected to a process about which he knew nothing, and the administrators were forced, in a kind of post-hoc way, to assemble evidence for their actions in dismissing a teacher they felt was unsuitable for teaching in the schools.

The difficulty was that the procedure adopted by the Board for the evaluation of teachers was entirely inadequate for the situation. The conditions of observation, the rating form, the role of the principal and department heads, planning procedures and school objectives were not outlined precisely. The appeal process and the steps to be taken leading to dismissal were not well worked out.

Having a fully developed set of policies and procedures would not have produced a result any different, in my view. (The teacher lost the case.) But the expense, humiliation, delay, and confusion could have been eliminated and the question of fairness, the basic question before the tribunal, could not have been raised.

I do not have the time to go fully into the nature of an effective set of policies and procedures, but I would like to outline a few important characteristics. I am referring here only to the general process. In addition to my own work, I am relying on an article by Natriello and Dornbusch in Administrator's Notebook (1981).

1. Procedures should be cooperatively developed with teachers and administrators.

2. Evaluation should be considered a continuous process, involving prior planning, gathering of information, and judgment. It is cyclical and developmental in nature.

3. Teachers should know in advance exactly what steps are to be followed, who is to be involved, how an appeal can be made, and what the criteria are for making a judgment.

4. Policies and procedures should be under continuous review and should be updated, revised and changed on a regular basis.

Purposes

Nearly all the current works on evaluation indicate that teachers, administrators, and trustees believe that the prime purpose of evaluation should be the improvement of instruction or the improvement of the teaching/learning process. If this is agreed on, then the whole process of evaluation should be directed in a particular way.

I want to give a warning in this regard, or to point out a real dilemma. Instruction and learning occur in the interaction between teacher and student. Anything else becomes irrelevant and cannot be included in the evaluation process. What happens, then, if the teacher is not a good school citizen, does not work well with other teachers, is in conflict with administrators, does not turn in reports on time, is careless about attending meetings? From the administrative point of view, behaviours in these non-instructional areas are important for the life of the school, even though they are not directly related to teaching.

I believe this issue must be discussed, and either the interpretation of what is meant by the improvement of instruction broadened, or else the purpose itself must go beyond the improvement of instruction. In the

Board of Reference case I mentioned earlier, the administrators were in the difficult position of having to prove incompetent teaching when, in fact, the real problem with the teacher involved out of classroom behaviour.

Observation

Scriven (1981), along with most other writers in this field, is extremely critical of the emphasis on classroom observation as the main source of information for evaluation. We know for certain that a principal sitting in the back of the room with a notebook and a rating sheet once a year or once every three years is not going to produce a rating that has any reliability or validity. His judgment of what is going on will differ from that of other independent raters; he will have collected information of a relatively superficial nature, having to do with room appearance, classroom control, and the personal style of the teacher.

This is not to suggest that observation should not be part of the evaluation process. It is, however, only one aspect. There are other equally important sources of information such as student judgments, analysis of materials used, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge about children, and others. Furthermore, observation is only useful if it is combined with work in setting objectives, in the identification of specific problems, in follow-up activities, and in the provision of technical and professional assistance on a cooperative basis.

And yet we persist. Only a few weeks ago I examined a new set of procedures for evaluation in an Ontario school system which specified that observation of classroom performance should occur once every three years for experienced teachers. And the whole document centred around the nature of that observation, the rating sheet to be used, who was to do it and the like. Essentially a useless exercise, in my view. Our data also show that in the vast majority of cases it is the principal who does the observation, sometimes in cooperation with other administrators, but often alone.

It is time to put classroom observation into perspective, and to use the knowledge we have about it to make it into a useful exercise.

Criteria and Rating Forms

The use of criteria and rating forms is one of the most difficult and dangerous parts of the evaluation process. If we knew precisely what teaching behaviours led to student gains (and we are gaining more knowledge rapidly about this), we could impose from the board or provincial level sets of precise criteria to be used in evaluation. But we simply do not know enough yet.

At the same time, it is essential that the teacher know in advance the basis on which the evaluation is to be made. Hence the dilemma.

I wish to make several points about this. Criteria placed on rating forms or embodied in procedures should be as specific and measurable as possible. It is not enough simply to list classroom climate as a criterion. Does it refer to the room temperature? Can it vary from class to class? Does it involve noise level? Humour? Movement? Voice? And how does it relate to learning? And is it better to have an open or a closed climate?

The number of criteria of this kind are almost endless. Good leadership. Good rapport. Good organization. Teacher/pupil interaction. I have a feeling that these are important in teaching, but if I were a teacher I would want to know in advance at least what the evaluator thinks these terms mean.

Given that we can't really quantify a concept like "climate", I would suggest that any set of criteria should be accompanied by descriptors and examples, ideally descriptors and examples which the teachers and administrators have worked out together. But at least there should be an attempt at definition.

A second problem with criteria, particularly those on rating forms, is a tendency to include items unrelated to the stated purpose, or unrelated to what we know about learning. For example, if the purpose of evaluation is to improve instruction, I would question whether teacher-administrator relations should be a criterion. Further, personal appearance, so long as some social norms are respected, does not seem to me to be crucial. Most of us have little control over how we look, and whether I wear a coat and tie in class would seem a trivial question. Dress codes may be important, but they should be made part of administrative regulations of some kind, rather than of the evaluation of teaching.

Finally, I really question whether system-wide criteria should be applied. The difference between teaching kindergarten in an inner city school and high school physics in an affluent suburb must be considerable. Criteria, somehow, should be designed in such a way that they can be applied differently according to the situation.

As an aside, and referring again to my experience on the Board of Reference, one of the points of contention was the allegation by the administrators that the teacher had not used humour in class. Quite apart from whether humour is always appropriate, the teacher testified that having been observed for ten straight days by ten different evaluators, often unannounced, he had not felt particularly joyous as he faced the class each day.

Development, Improvement and Exit

Most of the literature uses the familiar terms formative and summative to describe types of evaluation. I am a little tired of these terms and prefer a newer jargon as indicated in the heading.

Essentially, I believe any evaluation process should include three tracks or three avenues.

The first we might call the development track. In this case, the teacher will, in the past, have been judged competent or better than competent. One does not question the basic ability. At the same time, experienced and effective teachers need the stimulation of new things. This kind of evaluation should establish some new goals for the teacher such as the trial of an innovation or the development of a new approach to a topic or even an attempt to use some new technology such as micro-computers. The teacher goes through the process and at the evaluation stage a judgment is made cooperatively about the degree of success. If there are problems it may be tried again, or something new may be attempted. The point is that the experienced teacher is stimulated and encouraged and perhaps rewarded for continued growth.

The improvement track is for a teacher who has experienced some difficulties, perhaps in planning or control, or maybe the teacher is new to the system or new to teaching. The process is essentially the same, but the diagnosis at the beginning is that some fundamentals need to be looked at.

If improvement occurs, the teacher goes to the developmental track. If problems persist, the teacher is placed on the "exit" track, a new and descriptive term in the field. Here, of course, the process may result in dismissal if improvement is not achieved.

The crucial point is that there must be a clear distinction between the tracks. The procedures will differ at each level, of course, but the teacher has to know where he or she is at any given time. In particular, the developmental track, which is where most teachers will fall in my view, is non-threatening, leads to professional growth, and emphasizes the commitment that both the administration and the teacher have to embarking on some untrodden paths in an effort to improve the program.

Administrators and Teachers

There are two points to be made under this topic.

First, I doubt whether any evaluation system for teachers will work, even if cooperatively developed, if there is not also an evaluation system for administrators. When I was an administrator in schools I was never formally evaluated. How could I expect teachers to respond well to any of my judgments about them?

Second, and this is controversial, I believe that central office supervisors, superintendents and assistant superintendents should not be directly involved in teacher evaluation. Their responsibility is to see that the evaluation system is in place and working, that procedures are followed, that the building administrators are doing their job. The idea of a central office administrator dropping into a class to observe a teacher he does not know or knows only slightly and rendering a judgment only compounds some of the problems we have mentioned earlier. And yet, in Ontario at least, supervisory officers are often required to observe teachers, particularly non-tenured teachers.

The Legal Context

I will be very brief on this because I know it is the topic of a session later in this conference. I would just emphasize in general the importance of highly detailed and consistent procedures and policies in the current social situation. In Ontario at least, teachers have become aware of their legal rights and are exercising them. They are going to grievance arbitration, boards of reference and the courts to argue about judgments made on their abilities as teachers. As I have indicated, this is expensive and heart-rending in many cases, but it is not going to go away.

Of prime importance, it seems to me, is the necessity to be fair to individuals. In Ontario this is being interpreted as having prior knowledge about the process, which is why I have argued for intense attention to policies and procedures and to documentation.

The Provincial Context

In Redefining Teacher Evaluation (Ryan and Hickcox, 1980) a fairly major effort was made to examine the issues surrounding provincial involvement in teacher evaluation. Our surveys indicated that teachers in general want some provincial involvement. In this context, we did a thorough study of the procedures used in the State of Connecticut. Without going into detail here, we concluded that the Connecticut approach is a sound one. It is mandated that every school system in the state develop an evaluation system. While there are broad parameters, there is considerable flexibility. Several aspects are crucial. The system is monitored by an independent board consisting of representatives from various constituencies. It has the power to change the regulations pertaining to the requirement to develop an evaluation system. That is to say, it can respond to real problems in the real world.

Second, the State provides funds to assist in the development of plans and to provide in-service training. Of course, not enough is provided, and that is one of the problems, but at least it was recognized that any real change will not occur without nurturing, training, experiments and support. In California, where a requirement was also imposed, no such support was provided, and except for superficial efforts school boards ignored the regulations.

Finally, through cooperation between the State, the universities, and the teachers, the evaluation system itself is systematically evaluated. Information is collected, calls for help are responded to, and the message is sent that nothing is written in stone. Unreal expectations are not imposed but positive change is encouraged.

Now I will not claim that this approach is perfect. Furthermore, I have not talked with anyone in Connecticut for more than a year, so I don't know how it is going, but I do support the general approach.

I believe, in Canada, that we would do well to consider some sort of provincial involvement in evaluation, not of a threatening kind, but of a supportive kind. The issues are sensitive, of course. But the complexity of this area is such that the expertise and support that could come from some provincial initiatives would be beneficial, in my view.

Conclusion

What I have done here is probably close to what I said at the beginning we didn't need to do. That is to say, I have reviewed in a fairly superficial way some issues and problems in teacher evaluation and made a call to action.

What I really wish is that we could act and that we could act in ways that would have some real impact on what goes on in the classroom.

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LEGAL DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER EVALUATION

D.J. GRADY
Legal Counsel
British Columbia Teachers' Federaton

It is frequently said that the primary purpose of evaluation is the improvement of instruction. No teachers' organization could object to this purpose as it unquestionably coincides with one or more of the express objects of most teacher organizations. In British Columbia much time, money and effort are invested in programs which are designed to enhance the quality of teaching. If quality is to improve, then evaluation is inevitable. There is much less accord on the system to be adopted and the purposes, hence the proliferation of research and study to promulgate a system of evaluation which will be acknowledged as efficient, effective, and fair to all concerned. Some of the more common benefits of a system of teacher evaluation are identified as follows:

1. To provide a framework for improvement of teaching and learning.
2. To provide a method of identification of teacher shortcomings and to identify remedial action.
3. To provide a basis for the dismissal of the teacher.

To review the framework of the evaluation system you have to look to the statutory requirements of the various school acts and regulations, or to the collective agreements, if there are no superseding statutory prescriptions. I was asked to touch on the statutory requirements of the various provinces. Having reviewed the acts and regulations I hesitate to present any seriatim review of provincial practices. I will be quite prepared to consider with you later a review of provincial practices if you are indeed interested in learning about other provincial procedures, including such matters as who reports, and how frequently, and for what purpose. I reached this conclusion partly because of time constraints, but also because an outsider's review of legislation does not necessarily reveal what is.

Any outsider reviewing British Columbia legislation would conclude that district superintendents and their assistants and directors of instruction were the dominant evaluators operating in a structured and district-wide operation under the supervision and direction of the district superintendent. With only incidental amendments to suit changes of title the legislation is little changed from the days of years ago when provincially-appointed inspectors roamed the province and teachers telephoned or telegraphed their present whereabouts so that other teachers could be prepared for the surprise visit of the great itinerant evaluator.

In practice school district staff are writing fewer and fewer reports. In total they are probably less than 10 per cent of the number issued by school principals and the number continues to decline. District staff evaluate and issue reports on principals but they usually only become involved in teacher evaluation if and when the principal has issued a less than satisfactory report. Accordingly, I suggest that our exchange of information about current practice will permit a more accurate representation than any scrutiny of legislation.

To identify shortcomings and recommend remedial action one has to look to the work and writings of educators, previously noted, and perhaps to other workshop speakers whose special interests lie in the improvement of the quality of instruction.

It is in the third identified purpose -- that of providing a basis for dismissal proceedings against a teacher -- that legal aspects become more significant and litigation much more likely.

Before proceeding I should identify the bias or prejudice which might inadvertently taint some of my observations. I have noted earlier that teacher organizations invariably espouse the improvement of quality of teaching. However, in most provinces all teachers are members of teachers' organizations. The organization has a duty to act in good faith on a member's behalf and to make decisions as to the merits of a particular grievance in a non-arbitrary manner. In most union contracts, the union, and not the member, has the ultimate power to invoke the higher stages of the grievance procedure. If the higher stages are governed by statute then the person directly concerned may probably proceed without the support of the teachers' organization. However, in British Columbia, teachers are assured of legal services on any proceeding pursuant to the School Act involving transfer, suspension, dismissal, or termination. The professional organization does not seek to prejudge; legal service in defence of the job is seen, in effect, as a benefit of membership. Consequently, many of my clients are teachers who have been judged to be incompetent and my duty is to advance their best possible defence. If this appears to conflict with the organization's purpose of improving the quality of teaching it can be countered by the argument that the quality of teaching is not enhanced by a teacher evaluation system which is viewed as a means to facilitate termination.

Perhaps if we consider some of the research into teacher evaluation we can better anticipate the legal problems which arise. It is trite to say that we look to the United States to anticipate our future trends and associated problems, but this is invariably true to some degree. In the United States principals are being required to spend increasing amounts of time in teacher evaluation because of the nation-wide increase in accountability legislation. Comprehensive evaluation systems and instruments are being devised and mandated in several states.

Perceptions of the purpose of evaluation vary considerably. A Texas study found that 62 per cent of the principals said that instructional improvement was the actual purpose of the evaluation. Only 20 per cent of teachers agreed. More than 65 per cent of teachers saw the renewal or cancellation of contracts as the real purpose[1]. Thus it is that any system of teacher evaluation, even if enthusiastically and conscientiously prepared and administered, will generate skepticism, uncertainty and fear in many teachers and the emotional impact may produce teaching performances which are not truly characteristic of the teacher's ability. As the evaluation progresses and the consequences become more apparent, the emotional impact is accentuated.

This is not to say that emotional strain is the monopoly of the person evaluated. Particularly since principals emerged as the more significant report writers, the two persons most directly involved know each other and have worked with each other; in consequence, well established personal relationships may be strained by the threatening consequences of the evaluation.

An evaluation report containing any imputation which may tend to injure a person's reputation in a business, employment, trade, profession, calling or office carried on or held by him is defamatory. However, where reports are required from administrators in the line of duty the defence of qualified privilege will apply, provided that no malice is shown. This defence has been confirmed by the Supreme Court of Canada and the privilege is not lost by the publication of the defamatory statement to others, such as stenographers and filing clerks, when the publication occurs within the usual and reasonable course of conducting business.[2]

In 1975 the reporting system in British Columbia received a severe shock when a jury awarded a teacher $67,300 in damages against five principals and a parent for libellous statements appearing in reports and letters written about the plaintiff by the defendants.[3] The jury determined that the statements were defamatory and false and that they were activated by malice which, of course, destroyed the defence of qualified privilege.

The decision sent many teachers scurrying for copies of their reports and many administrators expressed their concern that the decision would adversely affect the judgmental decisions of report writers. A joint statement issued by the Ministry of Education, the B.C. School Trustees Association and the B.C. Teachers' Federation stated, in part:

> *"The prescriptions of the Public Schools Act and Regulations must be followed and the authors of reports must be scrupulously introspective to ensure that their comments are valid and fair and free from any taint of animus toward the recipient of the report.*
>
> *The efficient and effective operation of the public school system demands some form of reporting system. This isolated and unusual decision of a court of law should be viewed for its positive contribution in stressing the obligation for fairness in that system."*

Another B.C. defamation action based upon teacher evaluations has not yet cleared the courts. A teacher's appointment was terminated following the receipt of reports that the learning situation in the teacher's classes was less than satisfactory. By a majority decision a review commission upheld the termination. A subsequent defamation action against the school board and the report writers was dismissed in the Supreme Court and in the Court of Appeal on the grounds that the decision of the review commission precluded or estopped any legal action for defamation against the report writers. A majority at the Court of Appeal ruled that one statement in a report was not accepted as valid by the review commission so the trial will proceed on that narrow issue with the single defendant report writer.[4]

Procedures for teacher evaluation vary for each province and territory. Similarly, there are variations in the appeal process following termination. Teachers whose probationary appointments are terminated or cancelled are not likely to have appeal rights in most provinces. Teachers with tenure facing termination usually have the right of appeal to a three-person appeal body. The exceptions are Alberta, New

Brunswick, Nova Scotia and the Yukon which have a one-person board of appeal. Appeal rights seem to be assured but in the province of Ontario the Minister of Education may refuse to grant a hearing by a board of reference. Reasons for termination vary from province to province and because we are here focussing on teacher evaluation we note that teachers spotlighted in the evaluation process may be terminated for "incompetence", "unsatisfactory service", or "neglect of duty". In British Columbia the termination is triggered by the board giving notice of intention to terminate after receipt by the board of at least three reports indicating that the learning situation in the class or classes of the teacher is less than satisfactory. (The reports must be issued by two or more persons pursuant to the Regulations, of which we will say more if time permits.)

A further anomaly in British Columbia is that the tribunal hearing an appeal on competence is called a review commission. The tribunal hearing appeals against dismissal for any other cause is called a board of reference. The substantial difference is that the former must be comprised of educators who must confirm or reverse the action of the board. The latter tribunal is predominantly comprised of lawyers and this tribunal has the power to vary the decision in addition to allowing or disallowing the appeal.

Fifteen or more years ago part of the folklore in education in British Columbia was that you couldn't succeed in terminating the appointment of an incompetent teacher. In our respectful opinion that conclusion had more to do with the inadequate compilation of evidence than with any tilting of the scales in the teacher's favour or any superior legal subtleties available to defence counsel. A U.S. survey of why school districts lose dismissal cases tends to support this view.[5] The legislature nonetheless set up the particular line involving multiple evaluations, unequivocal conclusions, firm deadlines and a tribunal comprised of experienced educators. Without comment on the efficacy of the use of a tribunal of educators we do observe that it has not diminished the role of lawyers. On the contrary, with school board and teacher both represented by counsel, the tribunal of educators soon discovered that it needed independent legal advice, so the scenario is now further complicated with the addition of counsel for the tribunal, appointed by the office of the Attorney-General.

An important preliminary issue in the matter of termination of teachers' contracts was the question whether or not the school board was acting as an administrative body or as a judicial or quasi-judicial body. The importance was that the rules of natural justice applied to the procedure involved in the exercise of a judicial or quasi-judicial act, but not to an administrative function. The classification was critical in that courts did not perceive their supervision to extend to administrative decisions.

Note please that I have used the past tense in the preceding paragraph because the Supreme Court of Canada as recently as 1978 ruled that even in the administrative or executive field there is a general duty of fairness.[6] Since the rules of natural justice are said to be fair play in action or that natural justice is merely a pretentious name for fairness, the distinction may now seem to be of no significance. However, in my opinion it cannot be said with certainty that Canadian courts will not distinguish between the two. For example, the general duty of fairness which would apply to the cancellation of probation will not likely be coterminous with the rules of natural justice which apply to the termination of a continuing appointment. The distinction is in fact encouraged by the degree of statutory direction provided in each case.

Since the rules of natural justice have been said to apply when a teacher's continuing appointment is terminated for cause we should look to the basic requirements of the rules. They are:

1. That an affected person be given adequate notice of the proposed action of the decision makers.

2. That he be given a full and fair opportunity to present his case.

3. That the decision maker act fairly and impartially.

These basic requirements have a number of elements, each of which defies absolute description and may be directed in part by the relevant statute or regulations.

Notice must be reasonable but in no special form unless the statute prescribes. Inherent in the concept of reasonable notice is that the person affected be provided sufficient time to become prepared. Hearings need not take the form of court proceedings but the circumstances must be such that affected individuals have a fair and adequate opportunity to present their case.

The authorities are clear that unless a statute requires it the technical legal rules of evidence will not apply in all their rigour to the proceedings of judicial or quasi-judicial agencies. For example, in the absence of a statutory requirement, there would be no obligation to admit sworn evidence only.

As a general principle an adjudicative agency is required to disclose information that would affect the adequate presentation of the case of an interested person. (One recent decision from Ontario, Collins and Renfrew County Board of Education, deals with that particular point. This case involved a referral back to the board because Collins apparently hadn't been told why he was being fired, which seems rather basic to the proposition.) This principle does not amount to a full right of production and discovery analogous to that in proceedings before a court. In teacher dismissal or termination proceedings one may normally expect that hearings before school boards will not involve sworn evidence, witnesses, and cross-examination although such trappings of the court process will undoubtedly be present in a subsequent appeal to a tribunal. One recent case, however, seems to go too far in this direction. In this case, Bates and the Colchester East Hants Amalgamated School Board, the Court decided that the school board was not required to adhere to the rules of natural justice in considering dismissal questions involving an employee. A decision of that nature would be hard to live with. However, the case may not be appealed, since between the school board hearing and the court action there had been a sixteen-day hearing before a court judge. It was probably felt that whatever defect there may have been at the school board hearing was more than remedied by sixteen days of the judge's time at the subsequent hearing.

Hearings before school boards are unlikely to be public. Tribunals hearing appeals will probably have the authority to determine whether the hearings will be public or private unless bound by a statutory prescription.

The statute may be silent about the right of an affected person to be represented by counsel, but in teacher dismissal proceedings we would not expect the right to be challenged and any unreasonable exclusion may provide grounds for a successful challenge.

Unless the statute requires it there is no duty on adjudicative agencies to give reasons for their decisions. In teacher termination proceedings the school board motions and the filed reports will probably constitute most of the record. Appeal tribunals will likely receive more direct and particular evidence and they are more likely to publish a report even though the statute may only require a decision.

The rule requiring that the decision maker be unbiased does not require proof of bias in fact, but only the appearance of bias. There is a mixed body of law regarding the role of the two "side men" in three-person tribunals. At one time all three tribunal members were susceptible to challenge. In more recent years the "side men" have been viewed to some extent as persons sympathetic to the interests of the party nominating them. That one might offset the other is seen as a safeguard leaving the chairperson (or single-person board of appeal) as the person who must be able to withstand any assertions of real or apprehended bias.

There are innumerable references to teacher cases where the courts have strictly construed statutes relating to the termination of teachers' contracts. Non-compliance with statutory requirements will invalidate a termination.[7]

Similarly, the courts will set aside a decision to terminate a teacher's appointment if it is shown that the procedures followed resulted in a denial of natural justice. Keep in mind, however, that even if a teacher secures reinstatement on these grounds it will not necessarily be for very long. If the substantive issue still remains, the process may be reinstituted, the natural justice flaw remedied, and the substantive issue leading to the termination determined in the school board's favour.[8]

Lawyers representing teachers or teachers' organizations in other provinces have confirmed my view that the teacher fighting a termination decision has a difficult task. Courts will tend to defer to the discretion of school authorities on the substantive aspects of teacher evaluation cases. This is perhaps more marked in such provinces as Alberta or Ontario where a Superior Court judge acts alone or as chairperson of a tribunal. The professional opinions of principals, senior school district staff, and superintendents, will be accepted almost without question.[9]

U.S. decisions on the substantive aspects of teacher competence are not a particularly useful guide to us since they will be predicated to state law. Student progress is specifically enumerated as a category for evaluation in California. Another widely publicized case upheld the dismissal of a teacher when the district relied upon the low scholastic achievement of her pupils on standardized tests.[10] National Testing Examinations of teachers have been utilized, and upheld by the courts as a basis for certifying teachers and determining their salary levels. When the practice was challenged and the plaintiff suggested performance evaluations as an alternative, the Court stated "Evaluations are entirely subjective and inexact... (and) involve substantial potential for discrimination in application. The NTE has the virtue of complete objectivity".[11] In Pennsylvania a categorical approach is used and a choice of from four to six descriptors is applied to each of four categories -- personality, preparation, technique, and pupil reaction. Notwithstanding the diversity of statutory provisions, there is, in addition, a paucity of reported decisions.

This dearth of material from the law reports is even more pronounced in Canada. It has been suggested that in several jurisdictions terminations may be attributed to a variety of reasons and that less than satisfactory evaluations may be but one of many issues leading to a decision to terminate. Accordingly, while competence, or the lack of it, may be the underlying problem, some particular event or cause may precipitate termination proceedings.

In Re Eliot, a New Brunswick decision, the Court of Appeal refused to set aside the decision of an adjudicator. The adjudicator had ruled in the teacher's favour in finding that control problems in some classes did not "... substantiate incompetency..." where other performance was otherwise satisfactory and even excellent in some respects.[12]

In Re Woznica, an Ontario decision, a majority of an arbitration board reinstated a probationary teacher when the evidence showed that the teacher was not evaluated in her area of specialization although she had been hired to teach in that speciality. The tribunal took notice of the teacher's very heavy workload and concluded that an evaluation based entirely outside the teacher's speciality fell short of any applicable standard of reasonableness.[13]

In Re Sederberg, a British Columbia decision, a majority of a review commission determined that the three less than satisfactory reports issued pursuant to the statute did not warrant termination and the teacher was reinstated. An application to Court to have the decision set aside failed. The Court ruled, in effect, that the commission, a tribunal of educators, was entitled to consider the teacher's total service, not just that covered by the period of the written reports. The majority noted an absence of material relating to achievement testing of pupils, an absence of complaints from other teachers, and a failure to accede to the teacher's transfer request even though she had been 17 years in the same school. The majority noted that a "troublesome repeater" pupil was the source of much of the control problem and, in an aside, alluded to the principal's paramount authority in the placing of pupils and in the discipline of pupils. Persons designated as supervisors in British Columbia are not authorized to write reports on teachers. This review commission refused to hear the direct evidence of the supervisor when he was called by the school board. The Court refused to set aside the decision on the grounds of exclusion of essential evidence, noting that the supervisor was responsible to the district superintendent and that the district superintendent was a more appropriate person to offer the evidence.[14]

In another unreported British Columbia decision a review commission reinstated the teacher following extended hearings where much of the evidence related to the teacher's emotional state when evaluators were present. This commission ruled, in effect, that the classroom situation should have triggered a medical response rather than a disciplinary response. While incapacity for non-culpable cause may lead to termination, the extended process related to incompetence proceedings was not viewed as appropriate.[15]

We have directed to your attention the Mason case from the British Columbia Supreme Court.[16] As noted, it was the first appraisal of the issue of "incompetency". While the evidence respecting teaching will differ from that respecting nursing, the approach will likely be similar.

From our experience and from discussions with colleagues I want to share with you observations about evidence in teacher competence cases before touching upon preferred practices in any evaluation system. There may be slight variations in the profile, but anticipate most of these ingredients!

1. Control Problems

Lack of control rages like a pestilence. If the teacher cannot control minor incidents they become a plague. Courses such as Project T.E.A.C.H. are useful in teaching skills to retain control, but there have to be hidden ingredients. Identify them, market them, and implant them and you will have the greatest breakthrough in pedagogy.

Loss of control is also narcotic. Once standards are relaxed the teacher becomes oblivious to the extent of the problem, or at least rationalizes that others must be facing similar problems and surviving.

2. Organization

The teacher viewed as incompetent is almost certainly very disorganized and inconsistent. The teacher's knowledge of subject matter is likely to be superficial. Planning and preparation is from day to day or lesson to lesson with emphasis on rote learning and busy work. Expectations of pupils are low and work will rarely be thoroughly checked. Pupil work habits and work books will deteriorate in quality. A failure to maintain rules and standards leads to pupil boredom and mischief, and sporadic attempts to reassert control are inadeqate. One technique, likely the "shout" or the "detention", will be used to extremes with diminishing effectiveness.

3. Personality

The teacher whose competence is in issue likely views criticism as threatening and negative. More energy will be extended in disputing the criticism than in fashioning the remedy. The teacher is likely to be a "loner" both within the school community and in private life. Often there are pressing private problems which inhibit efforts to resolve school problems.

In my respectful opinion teacher organizations are somewhat ambivalent in the matter of member competence. In some provinces, and Alberta and Saskatchewan are examples, the teachers' organization is expected to exercise its disciplinary authority to weed out incompetents. Yet in all provinces the teacher organization has a humanitarian duty, if not a legal duty, to work for the welfare of its members. Perhaps this very ambivalence deters members from seeking help and thus bringing their problems in focus before matters have reached the critical stage. Teachers, and particularly principal teachers, know when other teachers are experiencing difficulties. The challenge is to superimpose a system involving observation, analysis, remediation and reinforcement in a collegial process free from the draconian threat of termination.

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TEACHERS AND RESEARCH ON TEACHING: OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

PETER P. GRIMMETT
Assistant Professor
Centre for Studies in Education
Faculty of Education
University of British Columbia

Introduction

Research on teaching has burgeoned in the last eight years. Dunkin and Biddle's (1974) The Study of Teaching is regarded by MacKay and Osoba (1978) and Clark (1979) as a harbinger of the recent "active and intense ... research on teacher training and effectiveness" (McDonald, 1977, p. 29). One reason for this work's significance is the comprehensive nature of the review of research on teaching up to 1974; a further reason lies in the thoroughness and clarity with which the authors organize the field and conceptualize teaching as an area of study. Since 1974, then, research on teaching has taken on a newly-found activity and intensity. If research on teaching previously appeared to produce findings that sometimes perplexed practitioners, the activity of the 1970's and 1980's has tended to concentrate on understanding and articulating what acknowledged effective teachers do in classrooms and then testing the derived concepts in a controlled setting for their generalizability to other contexts. As a consequence, recent research on teaching offers findings that are complementary in nature to the experiential funds of knowledge accumulated by practising classroom teachers. It is in this light that practitioners ought to know something about research on teaching because the findings provide a useful and practical knowledge base that consolidates what good teachers have known and been doing for years.

Typically, teachers are confronted by two seemingly paradoxical concerns as they enter into the rigours and dynamic uncertainties of classroom instruction: one is a concern to aid individual students in their personal and social development by reducing teacher-dependency needs through the mitigation of the threat factor inherent in the designation of the teacher as the classroom authority figure, and the other is a here-and-now urgency to make the most productive use of the instructional time available through the cultivation of a business-like, task-oriented learning environment. These two concerns would also seem to characterize the major thrusts of research on teaching, the former towards an emphasis on the emotional climate of the classroom, the latter towards a re-emergence of direct instruction as a form of task-oriented learning. There is, then, a current debate between the claims of direct instruction, as propagated by Rosenshine (1976, 1979), Borich (1977, 1979), Gage (1978), Good (1979), Berliner (1979), and Brophy (1979), and the counter claims of more inductive approaches to instruction put forth by Horwitz (1979), Wright and DuCette (1976), Gall and Gall (1976), Peterson (1979), and Anderson (1959).

The thrust of this paper is to suggest that such a dichotomy is not only less than useful (if not confusing to some practitioners who have been exposed to the earlier work of Flanders (1970), Amidon and Hough (1967), and to the thinking of Raths (1976), Rogers (1972), Coombs (1972), Rokeach (1960), Dewey (1946), and Piaget (1929)) but also fallacious. This suggestion rests on the premise that teaching is a dynamic activity characterized by an urgent need to cope with and cater for the unexpected demands of an ambiguous and constantly changing environment -- such a context, it seems to me, precludes the luxury of adopting a bifurcated view of classroom instruction, i.e. direct versus indirect, in favour of a more interdependent view, namely one that calls for variability of strategies and flexibility in interactive behaviours. Before analysing research on teaching findings in light of 1) the current debate and 2) this proposed interdependent view, allow me to develop a basic conception of teaching that provides a useful framework for examining research on teaching findings. In developing this perspective, my thinking relies heavily on Housego's (1982) elaboration of the views of Hyman (1974) and Aoki (1971).

What Is Teaching?

There are those who would hold to the position that an activity may be called teaching only if learning results. Others say that all that is required for an activity to be called teaching is that there be the intent to induce learning. Hyman uses teaching in its intentional sense rather than its success sense. The reasons for using teaching in its intentional sense are as follows:

1. With the intentional sense, one can focus on the teacher's goal of learning rather than on secondary matters and one can point out that the teacher works with the student's relationship to subject matter as well as with subject matter.

2. By using the intentional sense, one can call a teacher's activity teaching and investigate that activity without waiting to hear whether a student has indeed learned.

3. By opting for intention, we can stress planning for teaching and the teaching which follows as well as the achievement aspect. If we focus solely on outcome, we encourage the notion that the end justifies the means.

4. The intentional sense highlights the idea that teaching is a deliberate activity. It doesn't just happen!

Hyman distinguishes teaching from other activities that are closely allied such as indoctrinating, drilling, conditioning, training, and instructing. He does so by viewing teaching as a "family" of activities, with the central element characterizing teaching being intelligence and the higher thinking powers associated with reason and understanding. Hyman says, "Teaching, then, essentially involves giving reasons, showing and weighing evidence, acting according to principles, drawing conclusions on relevant evidence, and justifying actions." (Hyman, p. 9)

The activities allied with teaching are divided into two groups by

Hyman, those that deal with thinking and those that deal with performing. He also divides the activities into those that are related to the use of intelligence and those that are not. (See Figure 1)

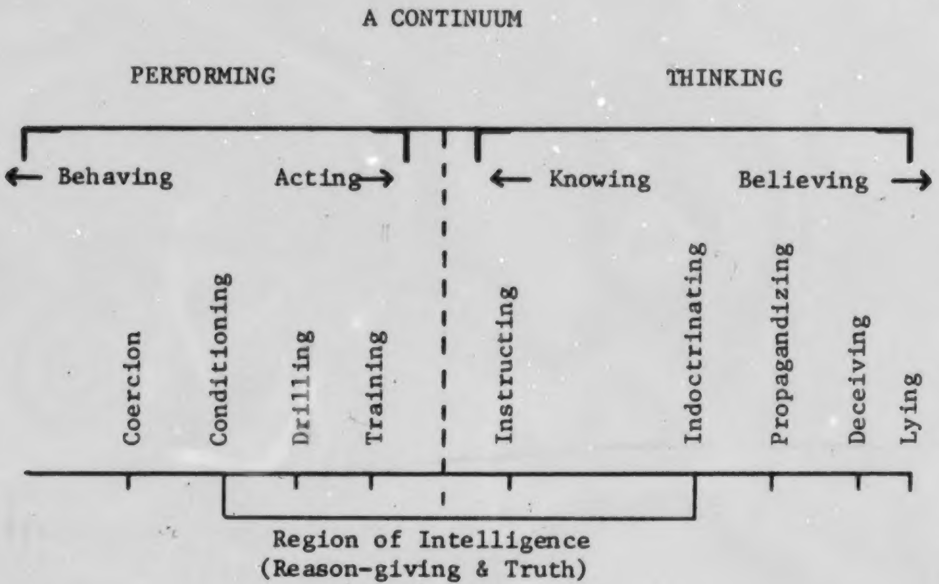


Figure 1. The Performing-Thinking Continuum (From R. Hyman, Ways of Teaching, Toronto, J.B. Lippincott Co., 1970, p.9)

Hyman is careful to point out that the placement of these activities on a continuum "... is not meant to suggest that the distinctions between conditioning, training, instructing and indoctrinating are perfectly clear and precise." (Hyman, p. 10). They overlap and blend into each other.

Teaching, then, is a deliberate (intentional) family of activities aimed at inducing learning. Central to the concept of teaching is the use of intelligence by the teacher and the student involving reason-giving and truth. (Hyman, p. 10)

An essential feature of teaching is the notion that it is a triadic relationship -- teacher and student connected by subject-matter, teacher and subject-matter connected by the student and student and subject-matter connected by the teacher. (See Figure 2)

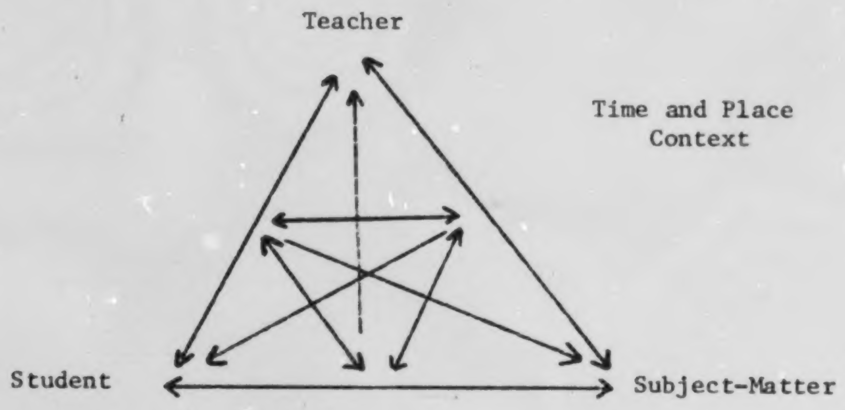


Figure 2. Teaching: Triadic and Dynamic (From R. Hyman, *Ways of Teaching*, Toronto, J.B. Lippincott Co., 1970, p.14.)

In addition to the triadic relationship in teaching, there is also a dynamic relationship. Since the teacher, the student and the subject-matter each undergoes change, the triadic relations must also change. For example, changes in the body of knowledge will influence the activities the teacher performs. "Teachers guided by the triadic dynamic concept of teaching put themselves into the teaching act not only in a dynamic relationship with the student but also in a dynamic relationship with the subject-matter they teach." (Hyman, p. 14). To view teaching in this way requires us to consider the teacher-student relationship and obtain data about it as we select methods for teaching, materials and activities by means of which to engage students, and gather data for evaluation.

In his discussion of what teaching is, Hyman goes on to make three further points that seem relevant to the purpose of this paper: 1) that teachers teach skills, knowledge and values -- how to do something, that something is the case, and norms and attitudes; 2) that teaching is, above all, a linguistic activity. (The prime means of communication in teaching is through oral and written language. However, there is also silent communication); 3) that teaching involves a relationship between teacher and student which goes beyond the rational, intellectual dimension. "The act of teaching, as opposed to, for example, lying or threatening, requires the teacher to treat the student as a human being, with dignity and respect, in order to encourage him/her to use his/her intelligence in supporting what he/she learns with appropriate evidence." (Hyman, pp. 18-19)

Important Dimensions of Teaching

Aoki reminds us that teaching involves two major phases: the preactive phase and the interactive phase. (See Figure 3). The preactive phase is in effect the instructional planning phase. The teacher, as instructional planner, makes decisions with respect to each of the following: intended learning outcomes, teaching strategies, and instrumental content. Presumably a teacher, in relation to students and subject-matter, has a notion of what outcomes of teaching are to emerge. The intents may have been determined by the instructor, or by the student, or by the two jointly, but further instructional planning is governed by an idea of what is to be learned. With respect to the intents, the teacher makes decisions about what content, what substance to use by means of which students can interact with the content in order to learn that which is intended. The teacher will also make decisions about what teaching strategies to engage the students in as they interact with the substance, or as Aoki calls it, the instrumental content.

Based upon this preactive phase, the actual instruction takes place -- the interactive phase of teaching. Learning is the outcome of a transaction between the learner and what Aoki calls the "display" -- the instrumental content. However, there are two important features of this

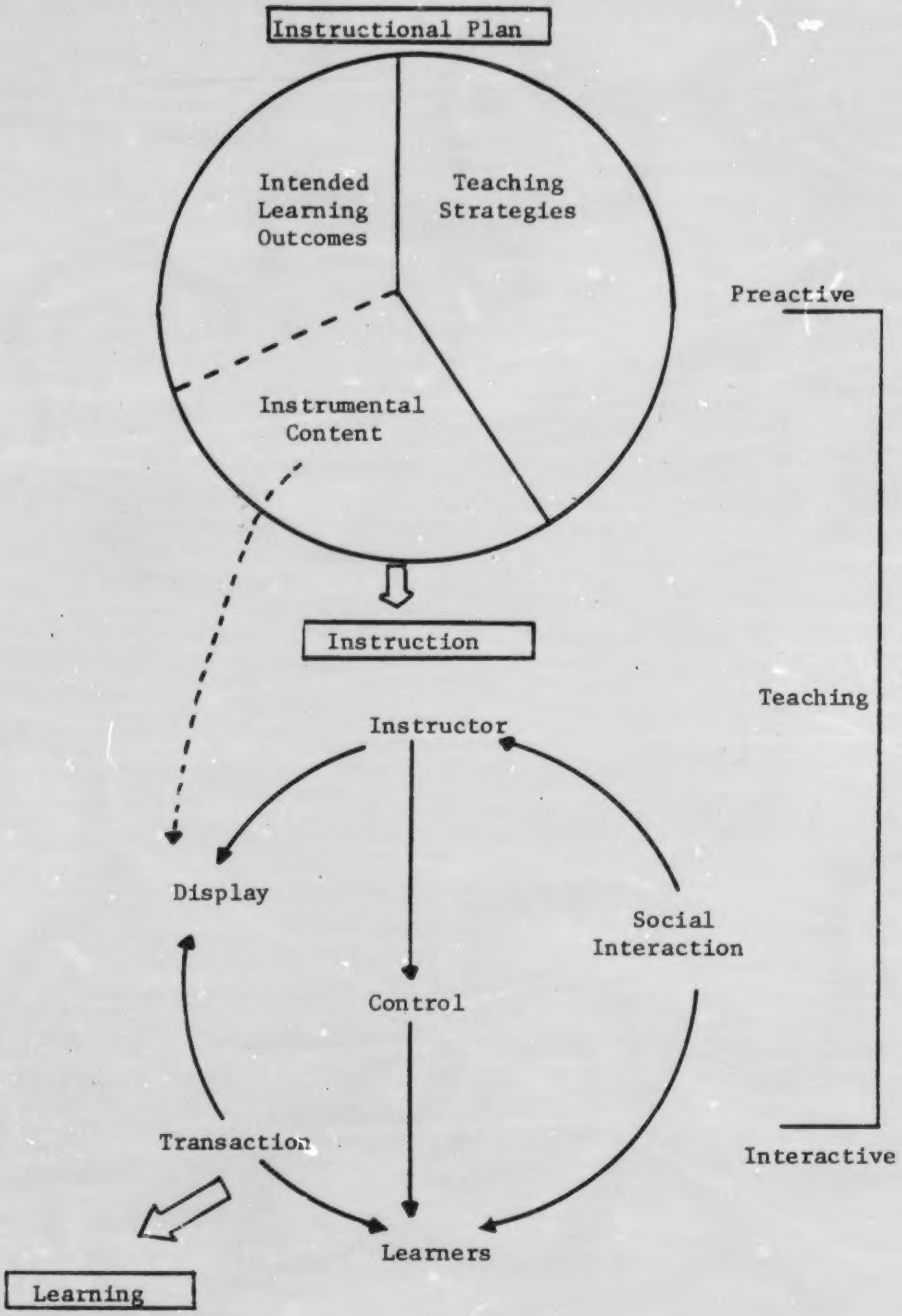


Figure 3: Dimensions of Teaching (From T. Aoki, "A Curriculum and Instructional Design", Division of Professional Development, B.C.T.F., Vancouver, 1970.) (Mimeo)

phase in addition to the so-called transaction. One feature is the nature of the authority the teacher uses in attempting to control the learning situation. The other feature is the nature of the social interaction between teacher and learners and among the learners themselves. The former emanates from the fact that teachers deal not with individuals but always with groups of students and within that context face the problem of organizing learning in a way that makes the most productive use of instructional time. The latter associates closely with the professional and human concern of teachers for students to develop socially and independently. It is possible to see the current direct⟷indirect dichotomy evident in research on teaching as emanating from a polarization of these two concerns. This need not, however, have been the case for, in 1974, Dunkin and Biddle conceptualized teaching as a field of study in a pluralistic fashion.

Review of Pre-1974 Research

Figure 4 shows Dunkin and Biddle's (1974, p. 38) model for the study of teaching. The model presumes a causative link between four clusters of variables: presage, context, process, and product. Presage variables consist of the formative experiences, training, and personal properties that a teacher brings to the classroom. Context variables pertain to those aspects of the school community, physical classroom set-up, and pupil formative experiences and properties that impinge on the teaching-learning situation. Process variables apply specifically to what goes on inside the classroom, notably teacher and pupil behaviour and the changes in behaviour that occur in pupils as a result of interaction with the teacher focussed on the curriculum. Product variables are the immediate and long-term effects of such interaction that presumably contribute to student development of skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

Until 1974, most research on teaching was of the process-product variety, although since that time there has emerged an emphasis on greater exploration of process variables in and of themselves, sometimes called "the process mediating paradigm" (Doyle, 1978) for research on teaching. Process-product research yields information about which teacher behaviours

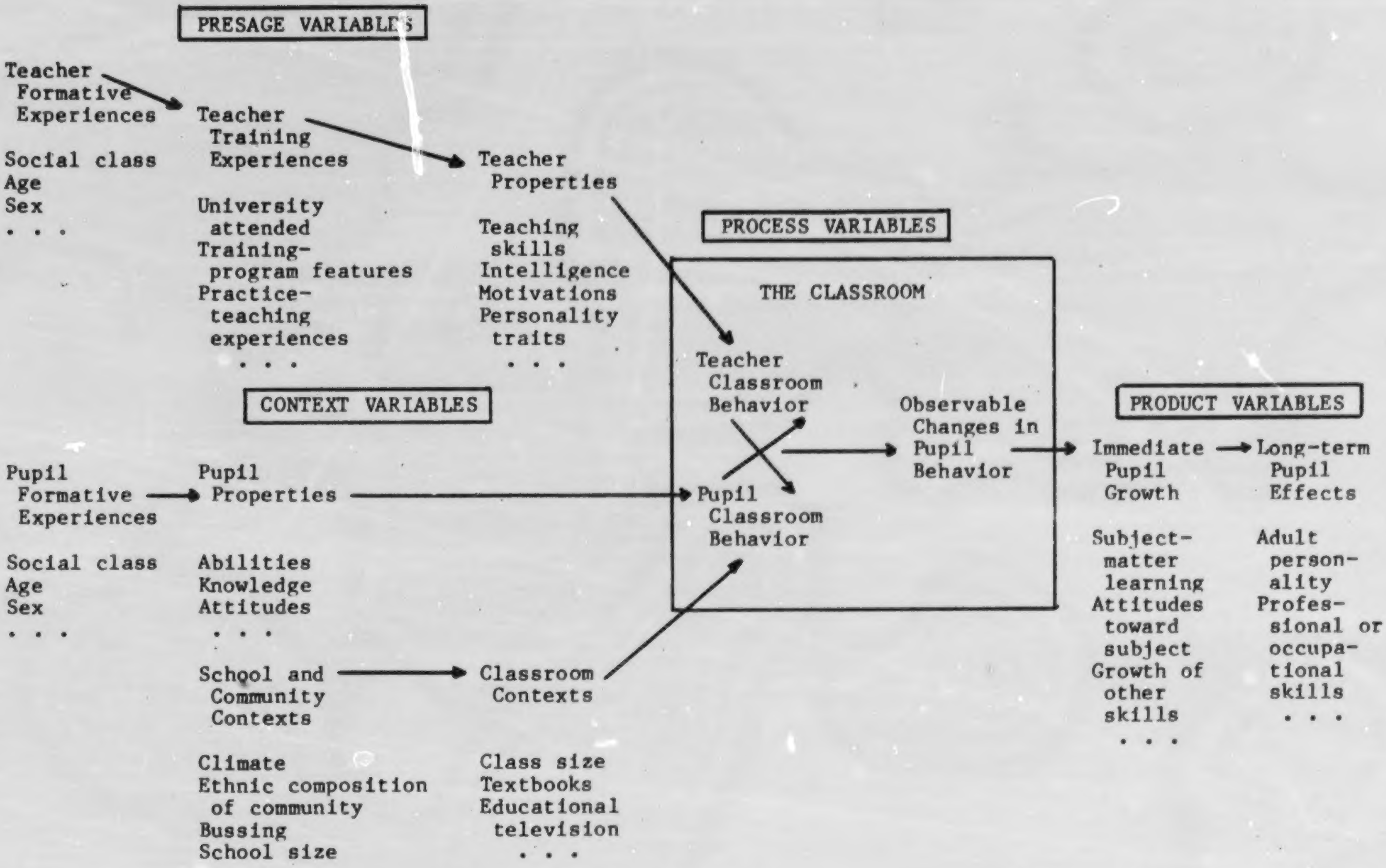


Figure 4. A Model for the Study of Classroom Teaching (From Dunkin & Biddle, The Study of Teaching, 1974, p. 38)

correlate with student learning behaviours, the assumption being that, if students behave in certain ways, they will then be making gains in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. There is, however, no research evidence as yet that demonstrates a clear causative link between teacher behaviour and student behaviour on the one hand, and, more importantly, between student behaviour and student learning on the other. The correlational nature of the relationship serves as a constant reminder that contextual and extraneous factors may account for significant findings.

For many, the lack of a causative link sometimes provides the grounds for dismissing the research findings as irrelevant and inappropriate. An extension of this line of thinking is the position that substantive, technical knowledge about effective teaching and learning is therefore impossible to attain since all classrooms are, by definition, different and unique. The purpose here is not to challenge the assumption that all classrooms provide different teaching-learning settings, nor is the intent one of engaging in the technical (seeking generalizable concepts and principles) vis-a-vis the situation-specific (all behaviour is context-bound) paradigm debate; rather, it is to point out the erroneous assumption that, because most research on teaching is, as yet, correlational, practitioners can give little attention to the evidence it has produced. On the contrary, educators may choose not to heed research findings at their peril. According to Fenstermacher (1982), the strength of recent research on teaching evidence is more potent than much of the medical research that many lay people accept without much criticism. Take, for example, the correlational medical research linking smoking with lung cancer. Over the last two decades more and more people have come to accept medical researcher pronouncements that the evidence linking smoking and lung cancer is firm and that people should act accordingly if they value their health. Yet such research is correlational. No causative link has yet been established between the two variables. Some people note this fact and choose to disregard the research evidence. Those who do seem to be more committed to smoking as an habitual practice than to the countervailing (albeit correlational) research evidence. The point at issue, however, is one of relevance. Most patients diagnosed as suffering from terminal lung cancer suddenly begin to take such correlational evidence extremely seriously. In a similar vein, most teachers whose professional competence is deemed by themselves, colleagues and supervisors to be border-line are quite likely to look closely at what correlational process-product studies suggest might enhance student learning gains. Since research on teaching findings possess a stronger base than some medical research evidence, it would then appear foolhardy to dismiss their relevance on grounds of a limited correlational design.

Research "Commitments" and Student Learning

Table 1 demonstrates the impact of certain variables associated with the research commitments identified by Dunkin and Biddle (1974) on student learning. Seven "commitments" were identified in the pre-1974 process-product research, six of which used correlational research designs. Only one school of thought or "commitment" was able to establish a cause and effect relationship with student learning outcomes, namely behaviour modification.

In their research review, Dunkin and Biddle cluster studies linking teacher behaviour to student learning gains and student affective variables into seven different but not discrete "theories" of teaching. The first is the commitment to Climate and Directiveness. Essentially, this commitment argues that teacher indirectness and teacher warmth (i.e. teacher use of praise, acceptance of student ideas and feelings, and the absence of teacher criticism) produces a climate in which students achieve positive learning gains in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

The second cluster of studies reported by Dunkin and Biddle has a Discipline and Group Management commitment. Group management in a classroom setting is seen to be facilitated by teacher "withitness" -- an awareness at all times of what is going on; by teacher "overlappingness" -- the ability to keep one activity going while doing something else at the same time; by teacher "smoothness" and "momentum" -- the absence of behaviours which slow down the pace of the lesson, causing student attention to wander off-task; and by other

TABLE 1

The Impact of Variables Associated with Research "Commitments" on Student Learning

Research on Teaching "Commitment"	Variables	Student Learning Impact	
Climate and Directiveness	Teacher praise Acceptance of student ideas Absence of teacher criticism	correlation →	Student achievement Attitude development
Discipline and Group Management	"Withitness" "Overlappingness" "Smoothness" "Momentum"	correlation →	Student on-task behaviour Student non-deviance
Behaviour Modification	Positive reinforcement Operant conditioning	cause & effect relationship →	Student compliance with learning task Student acquisition of skills, attitudes
Classroom as a Social System	Social group structure (not teacher behaviours) Contextual factors Role expectations Duration of lesson, etc.	correlation →	Student involvement in learning tasks Student participation in interaction (focuses more on process than product variables)
Knowledge and Intellect	Higher-order knowledge categories Divergent questions (extending)	correlation →	Student use of higher cognitive levels
Logic and Linguistics	Teacher use of correct logic Teacher use of correct language	correlation →	Student facility in thought processes & verbal expression
Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour	Lesson hangs together well Transition unobtrusive Meaningful relations among lesson parts	correlation →	Student gains in knowledge, skills, and attitude development

qualities that ensure that students are participating in productive activities and are not inactive, confused or restless.

A third commitment is to Behaviour Modification. This commitment, which has its origins in learning theory and animal research, stresses control of student behaviour without concern for their inner states. It is mostly concerned with problem students and individual management or with small classes of students who have similar problems. Within the limitations imposed by the assumptions undergirding this commitment, behaviour modification has proven highly effective in reducing student deviancy and increasing work involvement; but there is little evidence as yet to demonstrate long-term student growth once the stimuli have been removed. Further, there are misgivings about its singular orientation towards individual students or small classes of students with similar problems, since teachers generally work in classrooms with large heterogeneous groups.

A further commitment is that of viewing the Classroom as a Social System. This commitment stems largely from the sociology of education, where much research has investigated the classroom as a miniature social system. The lessons can therefore be analyzed in terms of the constraints placed on classroom instruction (for example, curriculum, environment and community values), and the system of roles undertaken by the participants (for example, the teacher's role is to ask questions, the students' to answer and so on). Moreno's (1953) method of sociometry, which provides a convenient means of mapping the social groupings of the classroom, also falls under this commitment.

Three further commitments to teaching emerge from Dunkin and Biddle's (1974) review of research: Knowledge and Intellect, Logic and Linguistics, and Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour. The Knowledge and Intellect commitment emphasizes the cognitive aspects of classroom life and stems largely from the work of Bloom and his associates (1956) in their landmark Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. It is also influenced by Guilford's (1956) system for viewing intelligence and by the work of Taba (1966) on cognitive functioning. The Logic and Linguistics commitment follows in the Socratic tradition, insisting that classroom teaching can be analyzed for its logical and coherent character. Essentially, linguistic expression and verbal development are viewed as the means of developing and deepening the thought processes; in other words, logical and coherent thought patterns are not free to develop when a person's linguistic capacity is stunted, since language is the vehicle through which thoughts are expressed (see Parsons, 1974). The Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour commitment views teaching as having a sequential character, i.e., one type of instructional act is likely to follow and be followed by other acts of specific types. Such a commitment, then, is not so much concerned with the frequency with which certain behaviours occur as it is with the sequential relationships of those behaviours. For example, researchers following this particular orientation would focus, not on how often teachers use praise, but on the patterns of behaviour in which praise is used. This kind of focus allows educators to assess the strategic significance of specific teaching behaviours and instructional acts to the overall lesson. In the case of our example, it enables one to assess whether praise was used glibly or was contingent upon good student performance.

Some Generalizable (Cross-Commitment) Criteria of Teaching Effectiveness

A search of two comprehensive reviews of studies on teaching effectiveness provides practitioners with some generalizable criteria.

Rosenshine and Furst's (1973) Review. In their modified summary of an earlier 1971 review, Rosenshine and Furst identified nine variables that have the most consistent research results in relating to student growth. These variables seem to be consistent with many of the different research "commitments":

1. Clarity. Teacher clarity appears important, and includes the similar concept of organization. The exact meaning of teacher clarity is reported by Rosenshine and Furst to be inadequately defined at present.

2. Variability. Variability refers to such events as using extra materials and displays or being flexible in procedures. Rosenshine and Furst (1973, p. 156) indicate that "additional research needs to be done to determine whether this classification contains variables which are indeed related".

3. Enthusiasm. This variable includes the amount of teaching "vigor and power" and the teacher's excitement about his subject. The teacher's movements, gestures and voice inflections have been included under the enthusiasm variable.

4. Task-oriented and/or Businesslike. Emphasizing the stimulation of thought or the acquisition of information and showing more concern that students learn something than that they enjoy themselves are illustrative of this variable.

5. Criticism. Criticism was found to have a negative relationship to student growth. Harsh criticism was seen to have the most negative impact.

6. Teacher Indirectness. Teacher use of student ideas was found to have a slight positive effect. A high indirect/direct ratio, where direct is considered, for example, as giving directions, was found also to be positive.

7. Student Opportunity to Learn Criterion Material. The relationship between opportunity to learn and achievement appears to have value, although Rosenshine and Furst indicate that insufficient research has been done on this variable.

8. Use of Structuring Comments. At the start or end of a lesson, overview comments are considered structuring comments. Because the studies grouped under this variable used incongruent definitions of structuring comments, a clear relationship, Rosenshine and Furst note, can only be concluded by further study.

9. Multiple Levels of Questions or Cognitive Discourse. The type of question asked, for example, "factual", appears to relate to student growth. Here again it is indicated that more research is required to clarify the optimal nature of the questions.

Rosenshine and Furst also comment (1973, p. 158):

> At first glance the above list of the strongest findings may appear to represent educational platitudes. Their value can be appreciated, however, when they are compared to the equally virtuous and sensible behaviours which have not shown significant and/or consistent relationships with student achievement to date. These variables ... include non-verbal approval ..., praise ..., warmth ..., and student participation. ...

Dunkin and Biddle's Review. Another major review was undertaken by Dunkin and Biddle (1974).

> This review included not only studies linking teacher behaviour to student learning gains, but also studies linking teacher behaviour to affective variables such as student attitude toward themselves as learners, toward teacher or school, and the like. In general, Dunkin and Biddle reached conclusions about process-product relationships similar to those reached by Rosenshine and Furst. ... They (Dunkin and Biddle) also noted some additional variables that appeared to be related to student learning and/or student attitudes. Most of these are in the area of classroom management ... (Good, et al., 1975, p. 59).

The additional variables noted by Dunkin and Biddle are highlighted in three areas; classroom management, steering groups and group size.

Classroom Management. Classroom management is seen to be facilitated by awareness at all times of what is going on; the ability of the teacher to keep activity going while doing something else at the same time; and other qualities that ensure pupils are participating in productive activities and are not inactive, confused or restless.

Steering Group. The learning of the whole class was found to be related to the ability and achievement of the steering group, that group which the teacher uses as a reference point to pace instruction. Better results were found when the teacher aimed at a higher ability steering group.

Group Size. Teachers who worked with smaller groups at times have been found to have better results than those working predominantly with the complete class.

The reviews of Rosenshine and Furst, and Dunkin and Biddle require updating as new research occurs. But strong points of these reviews still remain; they are summarized from a number of research studies, not just one, and they attempt to find trends that are not restricted to any one particular set of conditions. As such, these criteria constitute a framework that structures any observation of classroom instruction.

Trends In Research On Teaching Since 1974

Since 1974 research in teaching has been characterized by an emphasis on exploratory and ethnographic approaches as well as the more conventional process-product paradigm. In an era that has seen increasing demands for accountability from schools and teachers, the "decision-oriented" (Cronbach and Suppes, 1969) focus of process-product research on educational outcomes has retained its intuitive appeal. In contrast, exploratory research using ethnographic, ethnomethodological, phenomenological and cognitive information processing methods has fostered a primary interest in describing classroom phenomena with a view to increasing understanding rather than producing generalizable statements about process-product correlations. It begins with the assumption "that the improvement of education will result not so much from attempting to discover scientific methods that can be applied universally to classrooms throughout the land ... but rather by enabling teachers and others engaged in education to improve their ability to see and think about what they do" (Eisner, 1978, p. 346). In other words, exploratory research attempts to unpack various ways of viewing the classroom which may not be readily apparent to practitioners. Rather than seeking generalizable process-product relationships, the thrust is towards "the creation of images that people will find meaningful and from which their fallible and tentative view of the world can be altered, rejected, or made more secure" (Eisner, 1980, p. 15).

Such exploratory research, with its emphasis on qualitative rather than quantitative methods, tends to be perceived by policy-makers, parents and practitioners, at least initially, as being less relevant than process-product relationships to the immediate need of improving classroom teaching-learning situations. Consequently, it is possible to detect two broad views of research on teaching emerging: a normative one, and a professional one.

The Normative View of Research on Teaching

The normative view characterizes teaching as consisting of a definable repertoire of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that teachers make use of in classroom learning situations. Exposing teachers to the knowledge, skills and attitudes that research has demonstrated are effective in leading to student learning gains and socializing teachers to use them more regularly is, then, seen by this view as the way to improve education. This view associates closely with the so-called Competency-Based Teacher Education Movement, where teacher educators focus predominantly on research findings that directly affect the product of teacher preparation programs, i.e., the ability of teachers to effect improved achievement and attitude development in learners. The consequence of this focus is a susceptibility on the part of educators espousing the normative view to research findings emanating from process-product studies.

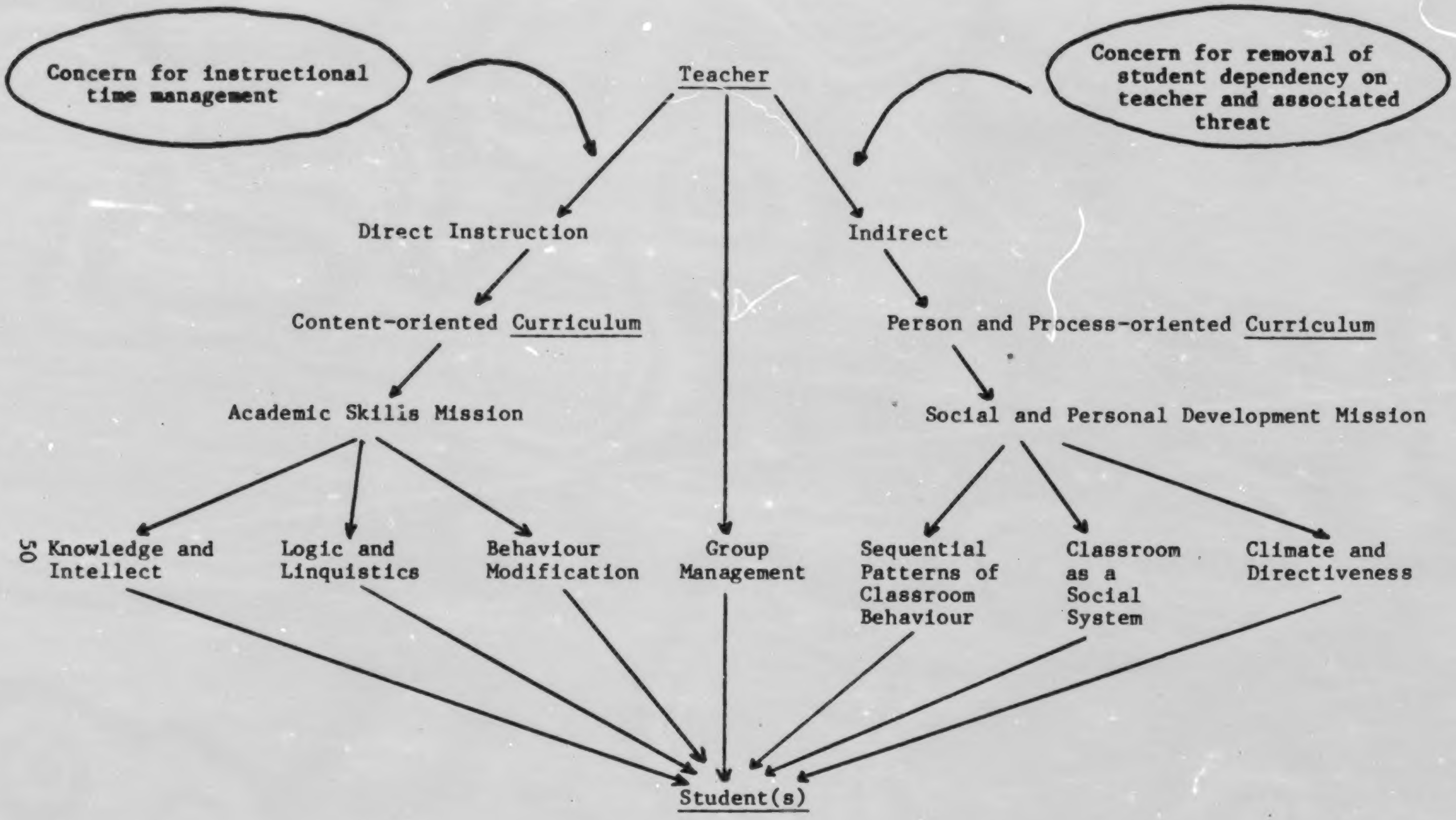
The Professional View of Research on Teaching

The professional view characterizes teaching more as a clinical process of "aggregating and making sense out of an incredible diversity of information sources" (N.I.E., 1974, p. 3) that pertain to the demands of the classroom teaching-learning situation. The emphasis, then, is on growth and reflection as aims in teacher education (Nemser, 1980) and providing teachers with ways to think about and deliberate upon their classroom experiences is seen as the more likely means of improving education. Teacher educators holding to this view would therefore characterize good teaching as involving reflection and informed choices about which behaviours and strategies are deemed most appropriate in specific teaching-learning situations. Such choices can be informed by process-product research, exploratory research, experience, or one's own beliefs. Consequently, research on teaching findings may "be freely and openly accepted, rejected, or modified" (Fenstermacher, 1980, p. 132). They are merely one source of information for teachers to consider as they reflect on and learn from their own classroom experiences. Although the espousing of this view does not preclude the utilization of process-product research, the tendency is for it not to occupy such a central position as it does in the normative view. This is because the ultimate decisions concerning the appropriateness of the research findings are made by teachers reflecting as professionals rather than by the researcher's operational definition of desirable teaching behaviours.

Two Research Thrusts: Direct, Inductive

The emergence of the normative and professional views of teaching has been accompanied by two distinct thrusts in research on teaching since 1974: one towards direct instruction as a viable means of teaching and the other towards less direct, more inductive approaches to the facilitation of classroom learning. Of these, the thrust towards direct instruction has emerged as a potent emphasis in recent research on teaching. This has occurred largely because of the weighty influence exercised by the Competency-Based Teacher Education Movement and the political climate of the late 1970's and 1980's which has tended to make it easier for research studies proposing to look at the teaching and learning of basic skills to obtain funding. Consequently, a dichotomy between direct and indirect approaches to instruction has arisen dependent upon whether the researcher's prime focus was on the productive use of instructional time or upon the need to cultivate in students less dependency on teachers as authority figures and a greater sense of responsible independence.

Figure 5 demonstrates the apparent (but fallacious) dichotomy precipitated by the trend in recent research on teaching towards direct instruction. Essentially, it is an extension of Figure 2, Hyman's (1974) triadic conception of teaching. The third dimension, however, that of subject matter or curriculum, is sub-divided into two strands: one towards a content-oriented curriculum that Rosenshine (1979) associates with direct instruction and the concern for productive use of instructional time, while the other is towards a person and process- oriented curriculum that Galton and Simon (1980) suggest is the preferred way for students to develop autonomous ways of learning and critical thinking. These two strands can be further compared by the particular educational


Concern for instructional time management
Teacher
Concern for removal of student dependency on teacher and associated threat
Direct Instruction
Indirect
Content-oriented Curriculum
Person and Process-oriented Curriculum
Academic Skills Mission
Social and Personal Development Mission
Knowledge and Intellect
Logic and Linquistics
Behaviour Modification
Group Management
Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour
Classroom as a Social System
Climate and Directiveness
Student(s)

57

58

Figure 5 The Apparent (but fallacious) Dichotomy Precipitated by the Trend In Recent Research on Teaching Towards Direct Instruction

missions they tend to support. In general, the direct instruction strand is more geared towards the academic skills mission, i.e., how students acquire knowledge and deal intellectually with the complexities of the world, whereas the less direct, process-oriented approach seeks to espouse the social and personal development of learners. These missions also provide a linkage with the research "commitments" identified by Dunkin and Biddle in pre-1974 studies, in that the schools of Knowledge and Intellect, Logic and Linguistics, and Behaviour Modification tend move towards the academic skills mission, while Climate and Directiveness, Classroom as a Social System, and Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour appear to emphasize the social and personal development mission. Discipline and Group Management, consistent with Aoki's dimensions of teaching in Figure 3, would seem to apply to the pursuit of all educational missions regardless of the prime instructional concern, approach, or curriculum focus.

It is possible then to trace the development of research on teaching since Dunkin and Biddle's (1974) landmark study to the two emerging thrusts of the 1980's. Researchers holding a normative view of teaching have tended to draw upon those "commitments" that lend themselves more to the pursuit of the academic skills mission in order to generate proposals for studying how best students acquire basic knowledge and skills in the limited instructional time available to schools. Those espousing a professional view, however, have attempted to balance the heavy process-product research emphasis on basic knowledge and skills with greater exploration of the world of teachers and students, attending to how they think, make decisions, and develop as individuals and social beings. Such research appears to have more in common with those "commitments" that are more geared to the social and personal development educational mission.

Post-1974 Research Support for Direct Instruction

Since 1974, process-product research studies have generated findings that seem consistent in relation to the variable of instructional time and the teaching of basic skills in reading and mathematics in the early grades of elementary school. These findings, in turn, have prompted reviewers like Rosenshine (1976, 1979) to emphasize the role of direct instruction in classroom teaching and the growing research evidence that supports such an approach. The normative view and the Competency-Based Movement's influence have combined to cause researchers to report their findings in terms of "teacher-should" statements.

After careful analysis of numerous studies over an extended period, Gage (1978) develops a set of inferences or "teacher-should" statements on how third-grade teachers should work if they are to maximize achievement in reading and mathematics for children of higher or lower academic orientation:

- Teachers should have a system of rules that allows pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check with the teacher.

- Teachers should move around the room a lot, monitoring pupils' seatwork and communicating to their pupils an awareness of their behaviour, while also attending to their academic needs.

- When pupils work independently, teachers should ensure that the assignments are interesting and worthwhile yet still easy enough to be completed by each third-grader working without teacher direction.

- Teachers should keep to a minimum such activities as giving directions and organizing the class for instruction. Teachers can do that by writing the daily schedule on the board, ensuring that pupils know where to go, what to do, etc.

- In selecting pupils to respond to questions, teachers should call on a child by name before asking the question, as a means of ensuring that all pupils are given an equal number of opportunities to answer questions.

- With less academically oriented pupils, teachers should always aim at getting the child to give some kind of response to a question. Rephrasing, giving cues, or asking a new question can be useful techniques for bringing forth some answer from a previously silent pupil or one who says "I don't know" or answers incorrectly.

- During reading-group instruction, teachers should give a maximal amount of brief feedback and provide fast-paced activities of the "drill" type.

(Gage, 1978, p. 234)

Further process-product studies that have been reported and analyzed recently are Brophy and Evertson (1974), Soar and Soar (1972), Stallings and Kaskowitz (1974) Good and Grouws (1975) and McDonald et al. (1975). Borich (1977) contains selected readings, reports and commentaries on these studies, the purpose being to establish the concepts and process involved in the appraisal of teaching. Borich (1979) sets out to derive competency statements from the same studies in order to keep teacher educators informed of the implications of recent process-product research. He concludes his analysis with the following thirteen point summary of the findings:

1. Teacher Questioning. The value of a systematic, patterned questioning strategy that focuses on individual pupil needs and understanding was confirmed in both studies that investigated this variable.

2. Whole Class Instruction. The value of teaching the class as a unit was confirmed in two out of three studies.

3. Instructional Materials. The value of using specialized materials, including textbooks and workbooks, was confirmed in two out of three studies.

4. Praise. The value of praise was unclear, though it appeared to be related to pupil socioeconomic status (SES), with lower-SES pupils profiting more from this teacher behaviour than higher-SES pupils.

5. Flexibility. The value of flexible rules was confirmed in both studies that investigated this variable.

6. Control and Structuring. The value of controlling pupil responses and structuring pupil behaviour was confounded by pupil SES and the cognitive objectives of the teacher. Lower-SES pupils benefit from tighter control, and higher cognitive objectives are more likely to be achieved in a less structured situation.

7. Interaction. The value of teacher-pupil interaction may depend on the situation and the kind of interaction. It appears to have a positive effect during group lessons and a negative effect most other times.

8. Teacher Affect. The value of high teacher affect with low-SES pupils and low teacher affect with high-SES pupils was confirmed in both studies that investigated this variable.

9. Pupil Engagement. The value of engaging pupils in on-task behaviour (and keeping them engaged) was confirmed in two out of three studies and may have been situation-specific in the third.

10. Student-Initiated Questions. The value of student-initiated questions was confirmed in both studies that investigated it.

11. Clarity. The value of teacher clarity was unapparent and probably content- and situation-specific.

12. Attention Getting. The value of getting and keeping pupil attention was confirmed in both studies that investigated it.

13. Feedback. The value of feedback seems to have been related to the aspect of pupil performance (substance or form) to which the teacher was responding. Feedback on substance had positive impact on pupil achievement, while the effect of process feedback depended on its context and type.

(Borich, 1979, p. 84)

Rosenshine (1976) reviewed the same group of studies as Borich (1979) and reported the following teaching behaviours as relating closely with student success in early grade reading and mathematics instruction:

1. Classroom time is structured by the teacher.
2. Teacher devotes classroom time to reading and mathematics instruction by means of textbooks, academic workbooks, and verbal interaction.
3. Teacher assigns seatwork involving academic workbooks through which students work at their own pace.
4. Teacher organizes students into small groups and supervises their work.
5. Teacher directs activities without giving students choice of activities or reasons for the selection of activities.
6. Teacher asks direct questions that have only a single answer.
7. Teacher encourages students to attempt to answer questions, even when they say they don't know the answers.
8. Teacher immediately reinforces students on the accuracy of their answers.
9. Teacher asks a new question after student has given a correct answer.

10. Teacher gives the correct answer after a student has given an incorrect answer.

Further reviews by Brophy (1979) and Good and Grouws (1979) confirm the evidence for direct instruction in early grade reading and mathematics. Brophy's (1979) review of effective principles for early grade reading instruction contains eight "teacher-should" statements:

1. Once in the reading group, the children should be seated with their backs to the rest of the class while the teacher is facing the class.

2. The introduction to the lesson should contain an overview of what is to come in order to mentally prepare the students for the presentation.

3. The teacher should work with one individual at a time in having the children practice the new skill and apply the new concept, making sure that everyone is checked and receives feedback during the lesson.

4. The teacher should use a pattern (such as going from one end of the group to the other) for selecting children to take their turns reading in the group or answering questions (rather than calling on them randomly and unpredictably).

5. When call-outs occur, the teacher should remind the child that everyone gets a turn, and he or she must wait his or her turn to answer.

6. After asking a question, the teacher should wait for the child to respond and also see that other children wait and do not call out answers. If the child does not respond within a reasonable time, the teacher should indicate that some response is expected by probing.

7. Praise should be used in moderation. The teacher should praise thinking and effort more than just getting the answer and should make praise as specific and individual as possible.

8. Criticism should also be as specific as possible and should include specification of desirable or correct alternatives.

(Brophy, 1979, pp. 36-37)

Similarly the work of Good and Grouws (1979) supports the following elements of fourth grade mathematics instruction:

1. Concentrate on whole class (not small group) instruction.
2. Begin with review (lasting about eight minutes) of concepts and skills stressed in the previous homework.
3. Collect and check the homework.
4. Ask several mental computation questions during the review.
5. Spend about 20 minutes developing new content (orienting, explaining, demonstrating).
6. Include questions, opportunities for controlled practice, and review/elaboration in the development portion of the lesson.
7. Allow about 15 minutes for seatwork, preferably uninterrupted successful practice.
8. Hold students accountable by checking their work.
9. Assign homework regularly -- about 15 minutes worth, which includes one or two review problems.
10. Conduct weekly and monthly reviews.

(Good and Grouws, 1979, pp. 361-362)

Taken together, these reviews and the studies they report provide an impressive array of evidence for direct instruction. However, the claims of direct instruction are also challenged by those who do not share the heavy emphasis on the academic skills mission.

Direct Instruction Reconsidered

Peterson (1979) has reviewed studies with a view to reconsidering the role of direct instruction. The structure of her review is two-fold: first, she looks at learning gains made by students under direct and indirect approaches in the cognitive domain, then secondly, she focusses on the affective realm. The point of this distinction is to show that the student learning outcomes of the direct approach to instruction are largely cognitive, and within that domain, limited to achievement in basic skills. In the affective domain, she found no study that demonstrated significant differences in the self-concept, anxiety levels, and locus of control of students subject to direct instruction. Conversely, indirect approaches to instruction produced considerable learning gains in students. Cognitively, students taught by indirect approaches shared gains in levels of creativity and problem-solving ability, while affectively their levels of independence and curiosity rose and their attitudes towards school and teachers improved dramatically. The significance of Peterson's (1979) review is that direct instruction does lead to student learning gains but only in the limited area of cognitive achievement.

This review certainly places direct instruction in perspective. There is a tendency, however, to understate the important role that direct instruction has been found to play in cognitive achievement. It would seem that further polarization between supporters of the direct and indirect approaches to instruction is not that useful for practising teachers. What is needed is a perspective that views direct and indirect approaches as two ends of a continuum rather than as different continua locked in a seemingly polarized debate. Teachers need to know how, when, and with what strategies direct instruction leads to cognitive achievement. They also need to know the conditions under which indirect approaches will produce the desired cognitive and affective outcomes. What is required is a complex view of teacher flexibility along a direct-indirect continuum.

A Complex View Of Teacher Flexibility

Joyce and Weil (1980) identify over eighty different models or strategies of teaching. These eighty models they categorize into four families of models, namely, personal models, social interaction models, behaviour modification/cybernetic models and information processing models. Figure 6 delineates these four families (with examples of specific models in each) and attempts to draw possible relationships between research on teaching "commitments", families of models, and their respective educational missions and goals. The personal family of models clearly follows the personal development mission and the goals that associate with that and tends to associate more with the climate and directiveness school of thought. The "commitments" of classroom as a

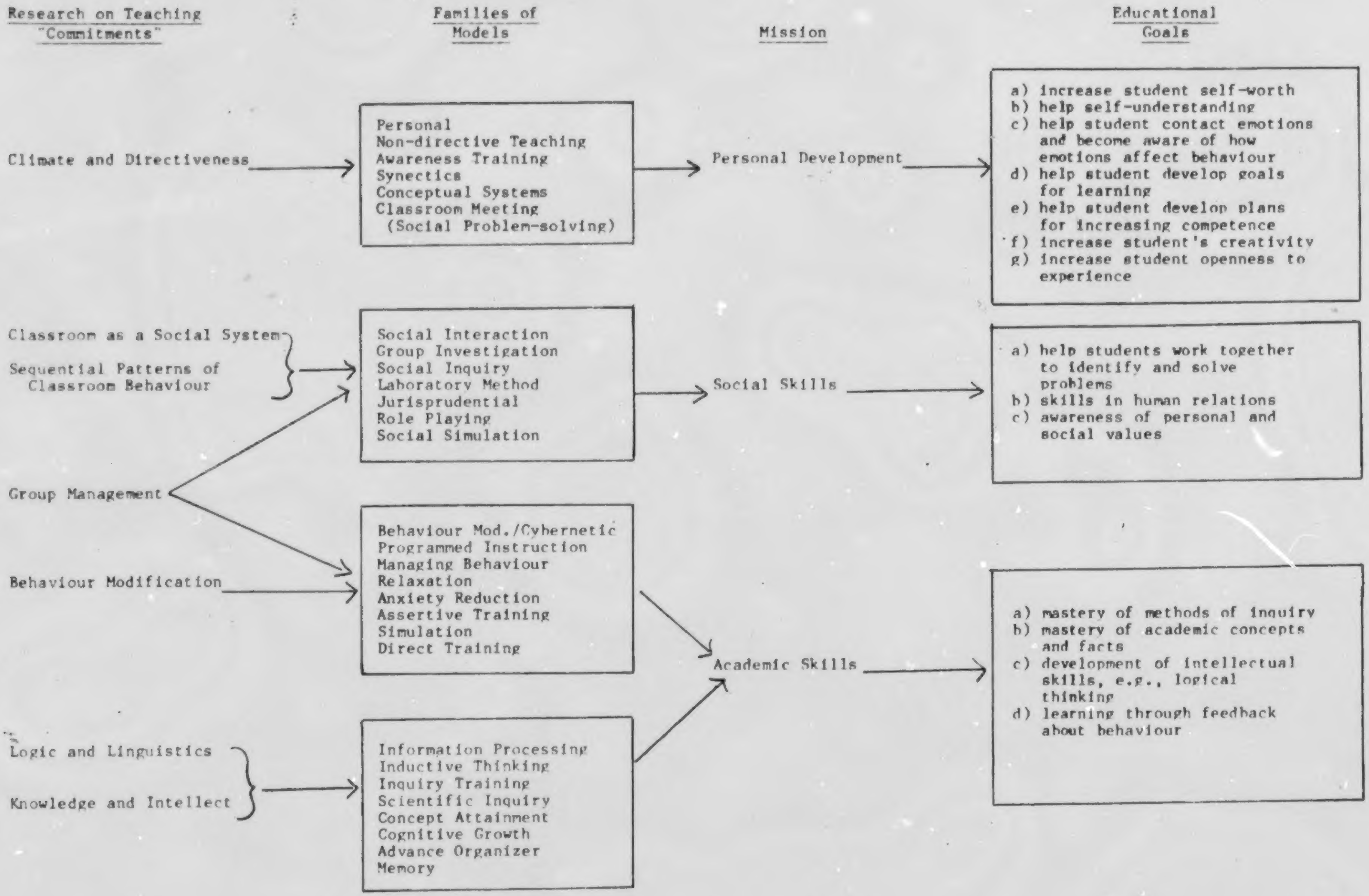

Research on Teaching "Commitments"
Families of Models
Mission
Educational Goals
Climate and Directiveness
Personal
Non-directive Teaching
Awareness Training
Synectics
Conceptual Systems
Classroom Meeting (Social Problem-solving)
Personal Development
a) increase student self-worth
b) help self-understanding
c) help student contact emotions and become aware of how emotions affect behaviour
d) help student develop goals for learning
e) help student develop plans for increasing competence
f) increase student's creativity
g) increase student openness to experience
Classroom as a Social System
Sequential Patterns of Classroom Behaviour
Social Interaction
Group Investigation
Social Inquiry
Laboratory Method
Jurisprudential
Role Playing
Social Simulation
Social Skills
a) help students work together to identify and solve problems
b) skills in human relations
c) awareness of personal and social values
Group Management
Behaviour Modification
Behaviour Mod./Cybernetic
Programmed Instruction
Managing Behaviour
Relaxation
Anxiety Reduction
Assertive Training
Simulation
Direct Training
Academic Skills
a) mastery of methods of inquiry
b) mastery of academic concepts and facts
c) development of intellectual skills, e.g., logical thinking
d) learning through feedback about behaviour
Logic and Linguistics
Knowledge and Intellect
Information Processing
Inductive Thinking
Inquiry Training
Scientific Inquiry
Concept Attainment
Cognitive Growth
Advance Organizer
Memory

Figure 6 Possible Relationships Between Research on Teaching "Commitments", Families of Models, and Educational Missions and Goals

social system and sequential patterns of classroom behaviour associate closely with the social skills development mission and goals that the social interaction family of models espouses. Behaviour modification clearly associates with the behaviour modification/cybernetic family identified by Joyce and Weil and the logic and linguistics, and knowledge and intellect commitments seem to relate more closely with the information processing models. The group management "commitment" once again associates with all families that contain models based on group instruction.

Figure 6 then attempts to draw relationships between the "commitments" identified by Dunkin and Biddle (1974) and the families of models identified by Joyce and Weil (1980). The relationships are not as straightforward as Figure 6 suggests; what is described are possibilities, not actualities, to help focus our thinking about research on teaching. Where the general tenor of the possible relationships falls down is in the association of information processing models with the knowledge and intellect "commitment" and therefore with direct instruction. Joyce and Weil's (1980) information processing models contain many examples of indirect approaches to instruction that also serve the academic mission and educational goals espoused by direct instruction. Given this caveat, however, these possible relationships enable us to organize research on teaching findings into a schema that allows for a complex view of teacher flexibility. For what is required is not teachers who espouse direct or indirect approaches to instruction, but ones who know when, how and why to employ different teaching models. By analysing selected teaching strategies in light of certain educational missions, it may be possible to establish their degree of appropriateness to classroom teaching-learning situations. Table 2 attempts to demonstrate such an analysis.

Educational Missions as Curriculum Conceptions

Eisner and Vallance (1974, pp. 5-14) identify five different conceptions of curriculum that vary according to the educational mission that is espoused. The five are academic rationalism, curriculum as technology, cognitive process, social reconstructionism, and

TABLE 2

Degree of Appropriateness of Selected Teaching Strategies to Differing Educational Missions

Missions / Strategies	Content of Discipline	Technical Skills	Cognitive Development	Social Development	Individualization and Actualization	
Independent Learning	M	M	L	M	H	Personal Family
Synectics	L	L	M	M	H	
Group Investigations	L	L	H	H	M	Social Interaction Family
Jurisprudential	L	L	M	H	L	
Role Playing	L	H	H	H	L	
Social Simulation	L	H	H	H	L	
Community Activities	L	L	M	H	M	
Viewing-Listening	H	H	L	M	M	Behaviour Modification/ Cybernetic Family
Lecture	H	L	L	L	L	
Programmed Instruction	M	H	L	L	L	
Simulated Games	L	H	H	H	L	
Practice and Drill	M	H	L	L	L	
Inquiry Training	H	L	H	L	L	Information Processing Family
Discussion	H	L	M	M	L	

Key: H = Highly appropriate
M = Moderately appropriate
L = Least appropriate

self-actualization. Academic rationalism emphasizes the content of disciplines as the subject matter to be learned. Curriculum as technology stresses technical skills and competencies that learners are expected to acquire. The focus of the cognitive process conception is on the development of thought processes in learners rather than the content with which they interact. Social reconstructionism highlights the need for curriculum content to be sensitized to societal needs and relevant to learners to assist them in their development as social beings. Self-actualization, like social reconstructionism and cognitive process, also emphasizes the development of learners, but as individuals according to their personal needs and interests.

These five conceptions relate closely to the three educational missions of academic skills, social skills, and personal development. Self-actualization is the conception that follows the personal development mission, while social reconstructionism espouses the mission of social development in learners. In like fashion, academic rationalism, curriculum technology, and cognitive process are variations of the academic skills mission where the emphasis is placed on ways of dealing intellectually with the complexities of the world.

Selected Teaching Strategies

Because the personal family of teaching models delineated by Joyce and Weil (1980) is less common in classrooms, only two strategies are included: independent learning and synectics. Independent learning allows for study to be carried out on an individual basis, regardless of the nature of instruction. In other words, a student proposed study project could be undertaken instead of class work provided it is done under teacher supervision. Synectics is a strategy aimed at increasing the creativity of individuals working in groups. First articulated by Gordon (1961), this strategy is based on the assumptions that creativity can be learned and that it is best fostered through group activity. Synectics involves creating new ways of looking at old problems and ideas through use of metaphors. Three broad types of metaphors are used: direct analogy, personal analogy (where students identify with the idea or problem in question), and compressed conflict (where students describe the idea or problem in apparently conflicting ways).

The social interaction family identified by Joyce & Weil (1980) comprises many strategies that find their way into classroom situations. Group investigation is a strategy that enables students to inquire into a social problem and observe themselves as inquirers. It essentially involves collaborative problem-solving where groups react to and puzzle over a phenomenon or event that calls for the formulation of the problem and a search for a possible solution. The jurisprudential strategy is aimed at providing opportunities for students to analyze public issues with a view to developing an informed position. Such a strategy often involves debate and dialogue around issues and policies rather than values. Role playing provides students with opportunities to explore problems in interpersonal relations. As such, it involves a process in which problems are addressed through action. Generally, students become so involved that this strategy allows them to experience the emotional reactions that they would be party to in real life situations. As a consequence, this strategy enables students to examine their feelings and gain insights into their attitudes, beliefs, and values. It is most useful in exploring interpersonal conflicts, intergroup relations, individual dilemmas, and historical or contemporary problems. Social simulation is very similar to role play in providing learners with an opportunity to respond to a life-like situation, but differs in that it uses critical feedback to help the learners understand the consequences of their actions. Community activities consist of community-centred experiences where students participate in the work and activities of certain agencies, e.g. churches, social services, hospitals, child-care centres, business offices, factories, government, etc. This strategy requires a great deal of community cooperation but it does provide students with an opportunity to understand the community in a way that assists their career choices and the development of work habits and self-assurance.

The models identified by Joyce & Weil (1980) as belonging to the behaviour modification/cybernetic family are perhaps among the most common ones found in classrooms. Viewing-Listening is a strategy that emphasizes the use of instructional machines and equipment as aids to learning. Television, films, computers and cassette recorders are examples of machines used for educational purposes. Lecture is a strategy that has been used for a long time to communicate information to students. Generally, students adopt a passive role as they listen to the teacher talking, reading or demonstrating. They attempt to assimilate the information presented by listening and taking notes. Programmed instruction is based on the theory of behaviour modification and operant conditioning. It is assumed that any process can be defined behaviourally and that the learners can be conditioned through positive reinforcement towards appropriate responses and behaviours. Joyce and Weil (1980, p. 276) identify three essential characteristics of programmed instruction: "1) an ordered sequence of items ... to which the student is asked to respond; 2) the student's response which may be in the form of filling in a blank ...; and 3) provision for immediate response confirmation". Since this strategy requires constant monitoring, computer programmed packages have emerged as a popular form of programmed instruction. The hidden curriculum of this approach is that students learn that every question has a single correct answer which they must accept if they are to be successful in the program. Simulated games are designed to give students life-like situations in which to acquire specific skills and knowledge. Because of their design, positive and negative consequences can be simulated, dependent upon the learner's application of the knowledge and skills appropriate to the task at hand. If, for example, a student fails to abide by the rules of the game as delineated by the teacher, he or she is denied access to the resources or information necessary to complete the assignment. Practice and drill is used when students are required to acquire a skill or competency in doing an overt act. The act of learning is performed repeatedly until the required level of skill is obtained. Although more readily associated with physical skills, this strategy can also be used to concentrate on verbal skills (e.g. modern language instruction), on written skills, (e.g. spelling), and on reading skills, (e.g. phonics).

The final family of teaching models identified by Joyce and Weil (1980) -- the information processing family -- contains two strategies that are used extensively in classrooms. Inquiry training sets out to enable students to learn the method of inquiry appropriate to the subject-matter under study. The procedures used relate directly to the way students expand their intellect "through three interacting and complementary functions: 1) encountering the environment, 2) processing the data obtained, 3) reorganizing one's own knowledge" (Suchman, 1967, p. 1). As a consequence, this approach encourages students to become autonomous thinkers as they deal with discrepant events in the environment they encounter. Discussion is a strategy involving discourse among students and teacher about assigned material or related topics. Gall and Gall (1976) described the discussion method in great detail, suggesting that "while two to twenty students represents a reasonable lower and upper limit, the best group size appears to be approximately five members" (p. 214).

The Degree of Appropriateness of Strategies to Missions

Table 2 attempts to demonstrate the degree of appropriateness of the selected teaching strategies outlined above to the five curriculum conceptions or educational missions identified by Eisner and Vallance (1974). If the mission is oriented towards a content of discipline type curriculum, i.e., transmitting information as effectively and expeditiously as possible, then it seems that teachers would do well to utilize the strategies of viewing-listening, lecture, inquiry training, or discussion. If, however, the emphasis in the curriculum is on the learning and acquisition of basic skills and competencies, then teachers would seem to be well advised to employ the strategies of role playing, simulation, viewing-listening, programmed instruction, and practice and drill. The current back-to-the-basics movement tends then to pressure teachers towards the use of these strategies. The important consideration for teachers is the consistency of the strategy used with the educational mission which they as teachers espouse. Such methods as are appropriate to the teaching of basic skills do not suit the cognitive development mission.

Curricula that emphasize cognitive development as the educational mission generally contain a bent towards process and inquiry rather than content. Consequently, teachers wishing to encourage thought process development in students would tend to make greater use of group investigations, role playing, simulation and inquiry training. If, on the other hand, the mission is social rather than cognitive, then the emphasis would be placed on using those strategies that are part of the social interaction family, together with simulated games.

The education mission espousing individualization and self-actualization in learners would tend to foster the strategies of independent learning and synectics and others contained in the personal family. However, this mission can also be attained, albeit to a lesser degree, through teacher use of group investigations, community activities, and viewing-listening. In similar fashion, personal family strategies, viewing-listening, and discussion would be deemed moderately appropriate to the mission of social development, just as independent learning, programmed instruction, and practice and drill are moderately appropriate to the mission of imparting the content of the subject disciplines.

The point of this discussion and analysis is to show teachers where certain strategies are more appropriate than others to the achievement of different educational missions. Research evidence provides the base upon which teachers can conduct professiónal deliberations. If teachers want to make informed choices about instructional matters, then Table 2 provides a starting-point for the rigorous sifting and utilization of research-verified knowledge in classroom decision-making. The usefulness of teaching strategies depends upon their appropriateness to the educational mission of the curriculum. Teaching effectiveness, then, involves responsible, informed choices by teachers of strategy and mission that are grounded in a complex view of teacher flexibility and implemented in a thoroughly competent manner.

Such a conception of effectiveness will become more widely accepted as researchers and teachers alike move away from a normative view of research on teaching, with its proclivity for espousing one approach to instruction over another, towards a professional view which sees teachers examining the appropriateness of research findings to the specific needs of their classroom contexts. The professional view challenges researchers to present their findings for teacher consideration tentatively, taking into account the complexities and dynamic uncertainties of teaching-learning situations. It also challenges teachers to reflect on what they are doing in classrooms in light of research evidence, to become calculated risk-takers as they experiment with strategies other than the "tried and true", and ultimately to become involved in the expansion of knowledge about teaching by being their own researchers.

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APPROACHES TO EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION: PROCEED WITH CAUTION!

NOEL CLARK
Executive Assistant
Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation

"For so it is, O Lord, my God, I measure it;
But what it is that I measure I do not know."
(St. Augustine)

The search for a universal definition of teaching and of what being a teacher encompasses generates many questions and somewhat fewer answers. In point of fact, the entire field of teacher evaluation has suffered from a surplus of opinion and a shortage of evidence. There is one thing, however, that we know for certain. Wherever there are human beings there will be evaluation. Even if teacher organizations across the country were able to negotiate a clause into every collective agreement that there would be no further evaluation of teachers, they would end up evaluating how well they had succeeded in negotiating the clauses.

So the issue, from a federation perspective, is not whether there will be evaluation; rather, it must involve questions of importance to teachers such as what, how, by whom, for what purpose, and with what consequence. These and other related questions seldom seem to surface in discussions regarding evaluation. A personal reflection of my own may serve as illustration.

A number of years ago in this fine city of Ottawa, I received my first evaluation as a beginning teacher. It is an experience worth relating. On a wintry day in February, as I was scurrying about attempting to whip my "buzzards" reading group into shape, a call came from the principal informing me that the superintendent was on his way up to my classroom to inspect me.

Talk about a feeling of fear, nervousness and panic all rolled into one. It was obvious to me that I knew little about teaching... it was hard enough keeping the kids busy, never mind teaching them anything of substance... and yet, here was someone coming to evaluate my teaching effectiveness.

Before I had a chance to react... I didn't even have a pat lesson in place for such an emergency... the superintendent arrived at my classroom door. Upon entering the classroom he looked about briefly, grunted, and then asked in a stern voice why there were only fifteen students present in the classroom. There was a pregnant pause as I tried desperately to recall where the others had gone. For the life of me I couldn't come up with an answer. As I stood staring off into space in utter terror another event was taking place simultaneously.

Young Gary, one of my prize students, who was seated at the back of the classroom, happened to be a disastrous writer. You know the type... he had more eraser holes on his page than words... yet he followed instructions well. The one thing that I had taught Gary was to remove all of his workbooks from his desk and hide them in the empty desk beside him should any visitors enter the room. On this particular occasion Gary over-reacted and leaned too far as he attempted to move his workbooks to the other desk. His chair went crashing to the floor. My terror magnified as the superintendent raced to the back of the room to see if Gary had been hurt. It turned out that the crashing chair provided me time to remember that most of my class had gone off to choir. Unfortunately, the superintendent did get to see Gary's books.

Somehow I made it through that first evaluation and survived in teaching. To this day, no one has ever told me the purpose for that particular inspection. I suspect it was for administrative purposes as it certainly could not have been intended to assist me in becoming a better teacher.

Is there a place for such forms of evaluation within the teaching profession? -- I think not.

It is a truism that teacher organizations exist for the express purpose of furthering the interests of their members in areas related to salary, working conditions, job security, instruction and professional growth. In fact, a major goal of teacher organizations is to protect the employment security of their members (Armiger, 1981). If, as federation leaders, we believe that it is the secure teacher, free from anxiety about his or her future status, who will be able to pursue his or her professional duties and responsibilities to the utmost, then perhaps the time has come for us to re-examine the question, "Why do teachers get so uptight about evaluation?" My first impulse is to reply simply, "Why shouldn't they?"

After reviewing the literature on teacher evaluation, one of the clearest conclusions that emerges is that teacher evaluation and educational accountability both suffer from the legacy of anxiety and distrust which has been associated with them (Feldvebel, 1980). Generally, the appraisal systems operating in many parts of Canada have been designed for the specific purpose of documenting inappropriate teacher behaviours. Inherent in such models is a process that forces evaluators to collect data, use standardized instruments and act in a manner that provides for a written record of a teacher's performance. Unfortunately, within the process, teachers are seldom provided with adequate descriptions and an opportunity for discussion of what is expected, what is satisfactory, and what is disapproved in specific areas. It is not difficult to understand why so many teachers view evaluation with trepidation.

Experience and data found in numerous studies conducted by teacher organizations and others strongly suggest that evaluation systems based on "accountability" promote negative feelings about evaluation which, in turn, often lead to a lack of participation and less likelihood of teachers being willing to alter classroom behaviours (McGreal, 1982). In simplest terms, when teachers are threatened, the atmosphere for openness leading to improvement is drastically diminished.

To help alleviate at least some of this threat, it is the writer's belief that teachers' organizations must continue to press for open and non-threatening systems of evaluation which afford teachers the opportunity to seek answers to some very legitimate questions without fear of reprisal. If evaluation is a matter of trust, it seems only natural that when teachers are informed that they are going to be evaluated, they should be free to ask their evaluator "why?". That is, what is the purpose? They should have the right to know "what criteria will be used?" They should feel confident in asking the question, "what reports will be filed, when, for how long, and who will have access to the documentation?" In other words, there should be "no surprises" for teachers involved in any evaluation scheme.

For me to discuss some of the various approaches to evaluation and supervision without fear of misinterpretation, my concept of the purpose of evaluation needs to be clearly articulated. For this discussion, the purpose of evaluation is assumed to be the improvement of instruction.

Recognizing that the purpose of evaluation is NOT to find out who is the best teacher and who is the worst, or to grade hierarchically those in between, there are multiple resources available to provide some degree of assistance to teachers wishing to improve their teaching skills.

Through the years there have been three dominant procedures used to determine a teacher's level of performance. We shall consider each of these in turn, attempting to focus on their apparent uses and misuses. In addition to the traditional teacher evaluation techniques, that is ratings, classroom observation, and evaluation through student achievement, we shall also consider a number of alternative schemes for teacher appraisal that have been receiving some attention in recent years.

It must be recognized that a full day could easily be spent examining any one of these various approaches to evaluation. In the time available, all I can hope to do is "box the issues" in such a way that we will have a framework upon which to build policy options and recommendations in our small group sessions.

Checklists and Rating Scales

Since rating scales are, generally, the most widely employed indexes of teaching skill and are often of poorest quality, they are worthy of initial consideration. Rating teachers is easy, it is popular. It has been going on for so long that some educators assume it has merit. But by and large it doesn't.

Typical teacher evaluation scales look something like this:

		Ratings				
		Poor				Outstanding
1.	Personal Appearance	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Lesson Preparation	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Knowledge of Subject Matter	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Classroom Climate	1	2	3	4	5
5.	---	1	2	3	4	5

If we look carefully at this sample form, we notice that (1) the events being rated are not clearly specified and (2) the ratings do not designate different amounts of the events. Which events are being estimated under personal appearance is not clear. In fact, some items do not really refer to clearly observable events (knowledge). How much of what kind of daily preparation does it take to make a rating of 5 or 3 or 1? This type of instrument is virtually useless to the observer and the teacher alike (Harris, 1975). Yet, we find such rating scales still in widespread use to evaluate teacher effectiveness even though the ratings are often unreliable, and the numbers are inappropriate to the teacher.

In terms of advantages, ratings can be supplied with a minimum of expense. Supposedly, administrative ratings may be helpful in identifying the poor teacher or the stunningly fine teacher. Paradoxically, both of these can be identified without any mechanical assistance. A checklist or rating form would appear to save time because an observer need only record checks in appropriate boxes. Some writers claim that a rating form focusses attention on aspects of a lesson which the observer might otherwise miss, provides a degree of objectivity to the observation, and provides a permanent record which is quick and easy to make.

These advantages, however, are more than offset by serious deficiencies. Rating scales generally call for no systematic procedures. No data are recorded and, therefore, no explicit analytical and interpretative procedures are followed. The crux of the problem with regard to the use of a rating form for evaluating teachers is the criteria employed by the raters. They are characteristically so ill-defined and variable across raters that the results of evaluator ratings are typically inconsistent and confusing (Popham, 1974). Each of us in this room probably has a personal picture of how a teacher should teach. It is the way we would teach. But our conceptions of the good teacher no doubt differ dramatically, and such diversity often leads to confusion.

To overcome this confusion, it becomes our responsibility as federation leaders to get the message across to all of the players in the evaluation game that there are different ways to teach effectively. We must ensure that administrators never lose sight of the fact that there are many roads to Mecca.

In sum, the evidence is overwhelming that the use of checklists and rating forms is almost totally inadequate in terms of evaluating teacher effectiveness. It seems to follow that teacher organizations must take a stand against the use of any form of rating scale other than perhaps as an informal technique to assist teachers in the improvement of instruction.

Too many serious questions exist about the validity and fairness of supervisor ratings of teachers, as presently conducted, for teacher organizations to support such a concept.

Observation Schedules

Throughout Canada, teachers and administrators have sought for many years to deal efficaciously with the complex issues of teacher performance appraisal through observation. To date, few school systems have designed observation systems which work to the satisfaction of all. The problem of evaluating teacher performance through observation has been compounded often by the attempt to use such appraisals for two, not necessarily simultaneously compatible, purposes:

1. The improvement of instruction; and
2. The provision of information to those who make personnel decisions in a school system.

No wonder few events trigger more anxiety and coping behaviour on the part of the teachers than an indication that they are to be evaluated. Typically, the process involves an announced visit by the principal who sits for a period or two in the back of the room scribbling notes or marking off items on a form developed by some committee. Even more typically, they are carried out under administrative mandate which requires the principal to visit a given teacher, a given number of times, in a given period. There is often little or no follow-up. In many cases, these observations are conducted merely to determine the status of the teacher -- should he or she be on the job the coming year, how should he or she be rated for administrative purposes, should he or she be granted a permanent contract? Such visitations may have a measure of utility for the school system but they are seldom beneficial to the teacher and may well be counter-productive educationally if the criteria are petty or unrelated to the assessment of what the teacher is trying to achieve in the class (Diamond, 1975).

Michael Scriven, a leading authority in the field of evaluation, leaves no doubt regarding his feelings about using classroom visits by administrators to evaluate teaching. He indicates in no uncertain terms that:

> First, the visit itself alters the teaching so that the visitor is not looking at a representative sample.
>
> Second, the number of visits is too small to be an accurate sample from which to generalize.
>
> Third, the visitors are typically not devoid of independent personal prejudices in favour of, or against, the teacher, arising from the fact that visitors are normally administrators or colleagues of the teacher and, in their other roles, are involved in adversary proceedings with them, alliances with them, and so on.
>
> Fourth, nothing that could be observed in the classroom (apart from the most bizarre special cases) can be used as a basis for any inference about the merit of the teaching.
>
> Fifth, regardless of the fact that no observations of teaching style can legitimately be used as a basis for inference about the merit of the teaching, the visitor normally believes the contrary. This is often because visitors have their own preference as to certain styles, or have many years of experience in teaching this same type of course or student.
>
> (Michael Scriven, 1979)

In reading samples of board policies and collective agreements found in most school systems, we find that classroom visitations are intended for the purpose of improving instruction, and procedures for conducting them should be open and fair to teachers. You find in policies and agreements such statements as:

1. Teacher evaluation should be conducted primarily for the improvement of instruction.

2. The most important purpose of evaluation is to improve the effectiveness of the teacher, to inspire professional growth, and to shape a successful career in education.

3. The evaluation of the work of any teacher is the responsibility of the administration, but the development of an appropriate and fair instrument and procedure for evaluation is of proper concern to the entire teaching staff and administration.

From such statements, it seems clear that the primary role of the Federation becomes one of attempting to ensure that procedures are developed for classroom observation which are mutually agreeable to both evaluator and evaluatee, and that the purpose of supervisory visits is, in fact, the improvement of teaching-learning.

At the present time, however, there is still a considerable gap in some school systems between the stated purpose of the improvement of instruction and the kinds of practices followed. Within OPSMTF we are currently dealing with a school board which has seen fit to conduct, observe and document a member on 30 occasions so far this year. This would appear to be an unmistakable case of harassment. In another case, a teacher who has for 17 years received a good to excellent performance review, suddenly, with a change of principals, finds himself being rated "unsatisfactory" and in jeopardy of losing his job. Both of these cases smack of the "I gotcha" syndrome. Such misuse of the observation process must not be tolerated by any teacher group.

Obviously, evaluation of teacher performance is not going to drift off into the sunset. We might argue that classroom observations are most beneficial for recording and analyzing the teaching act -- not judging it. It is imperative, therefore, that the process between participants focus on those items that are deemed to be important in enhancing the instructional program, and that use is made of the best methods to elicit information which can help teachers consider facets of their instructional efforts that might be modified. These methods should involve prior understandings that do not render the teacher vulnerable to an external observation of his or her particular teaching style.

The concept of 'evaluating' being synonymous with 'rating' teacher performance will die hard. To avoid misuse, the emphasis on classroom observation must be directed to the improvment of instruction, and include an explicit concern for the morale of the participants. Otherwise, classroom observations will continue to be viewed by teachers as threatening and, for the most part, ineffective.

Evaluation Through Student Achievement

A third approach for judging teacher effectiveness in vogue today is to measure student progress -- one might call it the "proof of the pudding approach". If Johnny can't spell, then clearly the teacher isn't doing his or her job, so runs the argument; ipso facto, if you can measure what students have learned, you will know how good the teacher is. (Millman, 1979)

Unfortunately, time does not permit me to attack this line of reasoning or, for that matter, to discuss at any great length the various arguments concerning the issue of using outcome measures of student learning for the evaluation of teaching. My stance on the issue however, is very clear -- pupil performance on norm-referenced or criterion-referenced achievement tests should never be used for purposes of teacher evaluation. We all recognize that teachers make a significant difference, and one that is valued. But the process of examining test scores to determine which one of these teachers is superior to the other must be viewed as totally unacceptable to the profession.

The issue of the appropriateness of using student test results for evaluating teachers continues to be hotly debated, especially in the United States. The NEA, for example, rejects the evaluation of teaching on the basis of any outcome measure of student learning. Outcome measures are opposed on the grounds that:

1. what goes on in the classroom is not the only influence on the child's achievement;
2. measures for many of the objectives for which teachers have responsibility are lacking;
3. statistical difficulties arise in the measurement of pupil change; and,
4. the teacher may give attention primarily to a small portion of the students when held accountable for pupil achievement.

At the state level, the California Teachers' Association, like similar associations, states its position regarding the use of standardized tests which measure student achievement as a basis for measuring teacher effectiveness as follows:

> Because of profound misunderstanding about the nature of standardized tests, their misuse at the state level in comparing schools and communities, and the fact that they already exist and require no hard thinking to develop, and because the public has been oversold on the ... validity of "norms", many professionals, as well as many of the public, have adopted the simplistic notion that student progress in terms of grade placement on standardized tests should be the

> measure... used in evaluation of certificated personnel. This notion is totally false and must be resisted by every professional group....
>
> The whole issue could probably be reduced to four words -- "which kids... which context?"

In the United States, a number of teacher contracts specifically exclude evaluation of teachers on the basis of students' test scores. The Jefferson County School District (Louisville, Kentucky), for example, has a clause in its master contract that reads:

> Student test results shall not be used in any way to evaluate teachers....

Closer to home, one province in Canada has had a national assessment model in place since 1975. Each year, one curriculum area (reading, mathematics, science or social studies) is assessed in British Columbia (Mussio and Greer, 1980). Among other aspects, virtually every child in grades four, eight and twelve is evaluated on certain key program objectives set by the province's curricula. Local authorities are obliged to interpret their results both in absolute and comparative modes and to generate recommendations for changes (should these be warranted) by the data collected (Wilson, 1982).

In Ontario, the Ministry of Education has initiated a well-financed instrument development called the Ontario Assessment Instrument Pool (O.A.I.P.). By design, the pool is a collection of assessment devices intended to serve a variety of purposes for a variety of clients. Essentially, the goal is to develop a bank of test items that will assess all the key objectives of all the curriculum documents. These items can then be combined in various ways: by teachers, in making classroom achievement tests; by departments, in making grade-wide assessments; and by the Ministry itself, in reviewing programs in the province.

It is evident from these programs, and from others in New Brunswick, Alberta, and Manitoba, that forms of program evaluation systems are developing in Canada in a variety of ways (Wilson, 1982). For teacher organizations, the challenge will be to ensure that the information collected by these programs is not used by local or provincial authorities to evaluate teachers. As Donald Haefele indicates in his article "How to Evaluate Thee, Teacher -- Let Me Count the Ways..." "A firm grasp of the relevant literature, a clear understanding of the shortcomings associated with standardized tests, and the foresight to perceive the pernicious effects these testing approaches can inflict are potent reasons for seeking alternatives to the use of standardized testing as an index of teacher effectiveness."

Self-Evaluation

Self-evaluation is often defined as making judgments about one's own teaching. In making such judgments, teachers can use any number of evaluation techniques. For the purpose of our discussion, four major aids for self-evaluation are considered: self-appraisal, student ratings, peer ratings, and self-observation (via videotapes). It should be noted that there are some unanswered questions which have probably contributed to the lack of use of self-evaluation techniques by teachers. They are:

1. What is an appropriate role for the administrator in teacher self-evaluation?

2. What kind of policy should regulate the use of self-evaluation techniques by teachers?

3. Under what basic conditions are reliable results likely to occur when using self-evaluation techniques?

4. Can self-evaluation techniques really be of assistance to teachers in the improvement of instruction?

Self-Appraisal

As everyone in this room will understand, self-appraisal is almost an impossible task. The psychiatric view is that human beings cannot unflinchingly assess their own virtues and deficiencies but rather tend to construct a persona in what they believe to be their own image. Research in the area of self-appraisal suggests that:

1. Many teachers, particularly those who are marginal or insecure, tend to overrate themselves.

2. Emotionally secure teachers tend to underrate themselves.

3. Few are able to be objective in assessing their own performance, with the result that self-appraisal is often both inaccurate and unreliable.

To whatever degree these statements are true, there are serious implications for any sort of meaningful evaluation within an educational context.

A review of school board policy statements, collective agreements, and evaluation procedures indicates that the majority of school systems do not require teacher self-appraisal, but suggest it as optional and encourage teachers to share the results with the principal. To avoid misuse of data collected through the use of self-appraisal instruments, some school districts have negotiated clauses in their collective agreements dealing with the issue. Woodridge School District (New Jersey), for example, has a clause which reads:

> The teacher may submit a self-evaluation for each observation on a form identical to that used by the observer prior to the follow-up conference. This self-evaluation shall be attached to the official observation form and shall be placed in the teacher's District Personnel File.

On a more positive note, where teacher evaluation is viewed as a means of improving instruction -- rather than mere rating -- self-appraisal instruments such as those developed by OSSTF, NSTU and STF can become an important part of the total evaluation process. Needless to say, these instruments have been designed to hold no threat to a teacher's security or self-esteem. As Allen, et al (1970) have said:

> Teacher self-appraisal can occur and result in some kind of changed teaching behaviour only when the teacher perceives minimal external threat -- and sees the process of observing and describing himself and his behaviour as an opportunity rather than a threat. (p. 16)

Student Ratings

In recent years, particularly at higher levels of education, student ratings have been receiving a fair amount of attention. Some supporters of student ratings argue that, because the students observe their teacher in action many hours each week, they are the best judges of the quality of their education.

At the same time, however, not all teachers are eager to accept the premise that students should evaluate their instruction. In a nationwide opinion poll conducted by NEA, 50 per cent of the elementary and secondary teachers surveyed favoured formal evaluation by their students, and 50 per cent were opposed.

Are students really able to provide fair and forthright statements regarding the effectiveness of their teacher? Should students' ratings be included as a part of the evaluation procedure? How should the data collected from students be analyzed, and by whom? Should teachers be asked to share feedback received from students? These, and other related questions, need to be explored by teacher organizations.

There are various arguments concerning the question of how to use findings derived from student ratings. Some sources believe that the information should be for the eyes of the teacher only, while others feel the data collected should be shared with administrators and the results made available to others. (Eastridge, 1976)

As a protection against any indiscriminate use of student ratings of teacher performance at Nicolet High School in Milwaukee, the teachers' master contract rules out student evaluations unless they are voluntary and confidential; even then, no one in the administration can insist on seeing them. In Broward County School District (Florida), a clause in the collective agreement deals in a very straightforward manner with student ratings:

> Evaluation of employees by students shall not be conducted by the Board or District administration, nor will an action be taken against an employee based on such unauthorized evaluation.

The message, from the teachers' perspective, is abundantly clear. The use of ratings by students should be an optional activity decided upon by the teacher because of its potential benefits, not because it is a mandatory activity designed to gather data on the students' perceptions of the teacher's effectiveness.

Most people agree that student ratings could be useful if done fairly and effectively. Teachers I have spoken with are generally interested in what students think of them -- as long as the student input is kept confidential and not used as any form of witch hunt. Unfortunately, many of the instruments currently being used in students' rating of teachers are very broad. They are also subjective, in that they only reflect students' attitudes and opinions. The net result is that often the ratings get at specific minor problems rather than at actual teaching factors.

For those who are sincerely interested in the reaction and judgment of students related to their teaching, there should be an awareness of both the advantages and disadvantages of student feedback. Student feedback has distinct ADVANTAGES for teachers interested in improving instruction:

1. Research has shown that feedback from students can be an effective means of helping teachers improve their instructional skills.

2. Students who are given an opportunity to provide feedback sense that the teacher wants to improve instruction. Hence, students develop a more positive attitude since the instructor values their opinions.

3. Student feedback provides an opportunity for the teacher to obtain additional information about his or her instructional behaviour. Teachers need not be totally dependent on the evaluator's opinions.

But student feedback also has the following readily apparent DISADVANTAGES:

1. The system of student feedback is based on the premise that student opinions are candid and honest. If students sense the possibility of teacher retaliation (real or imagined) the model becomes relatively ineffective.

2. Teachers must demonstrate an openness and willingness to use student feedback. Fear communicated to students will intentionally or unintentionally discourage students from being candid and honest.

3. The system of student feedback can be readily abused by the teacher and student. An understanding of how, when, and where to collect the information is critical to the effectiveness of the process.

4. Total dependence on student feedback for the improvement of instruction has many inherent dangers. Potentially, the teacher makes adjustments in his instructional behaviour according to students' perceptions. In the final analysis, students can create the kind of teacher they believe to be most effective.

Peer Evaluation

Peer evaluation, the evaluation of one teacher by another, has made some inroads as an evaluation technique in the past decade, most often in conjunction with evaluation performed by a supervisor. Proponents of peer supervision believe that teachers can supervise, that classroom doors can be opened, that one's practices and problems can be shared (Alphonse, 1977). The general notion that professional peers ought to be of assistance to each other is an appealing one; in practice, however, peer ratings do not appear to have worked out very well.

For example, I might cite my own experience with this approach.

The teachers I worked with in a team teaching situation attempted a system of peer supervision for a time with somewhat disastrous results. As a team, we worked out a pattern whereby team members would observe a colleague teaching a master lesson, take notes on the effectiveness of the lesson, and later meet to share our impressions. Everything went well the first several weeks with platitudes about each and every lesson flowing freely. We poked fun at each other about our teaching, but never in a negative tone.

Then one afternoon, as we were commenting about a particular lesson that had been taught earlier in the day, one of the team members made note of the fact that he had felt the lesson had not gone all that well. He went on to offer several constructive suggestions as to how the lesson might have been improved. Even though the suggestions offered were presented in the kindest light and with the best of intentions, the member who had taught the lesson took the comments as direct criticism and started to cry. We tried desperately to calm her down, but to no avail. The sobbing continued and the meeting ended with each of us sheepishly sliding out of the meeting area wondering what had hit us.

No mention was made of the incident in the weeks that followed. Interestingly, the team held together for the next two years, but peer evaluation as a formal process slid by the wayside. I think we all learned by experience that constructive criticism is hard to give and even harder for some to receive.

More recently, within our affiliate, we have had to deal with another form of peer evaluation. In this case, senior administrators, as part of their school review, were having teachers complete questionnaires focussing on the performance of their principal. The questionnaires were being completed anonymously, with the information gathered forming a part of the final report. It wasn't until we moved on-site and made it very clear to the Board that there was nothing in the acts or regulations that required teachers to assume any responsibility for evaluation that the questionnaires were withdrawn as part of the review process. This is just another example of a supposed formative process being used for summative purposes.

Generally, the teachers I have spoken with strongly oppose peer evaluation. They claim that making negative reports on a colleague may serve to create disharmony and hard feelings among staff. For most teachers, there is hardly time available to reflect at any great length on their own teaching successes and failures, let alone involve themselves in evaluating the work of a colleague. It would seem that without total commitment, ample time and training for teachers, any form of peer evaluation runs the risk of being a random activity, unrelated to other instructional improvement activities and without any necessity to be directly related to the improvement of instruction.

Perhaps there is a place for peer supervision, as an adjunct to a formal program of supervision. No doubt, for some teachers, having the opportunity to receive feedback from a colleague would prove to be a worthwhile experience. The basic issue, however, is should teachers be evaluating teachers, and, if so, for what purpose? To close off this section, I want to share with you a clause from the Montgomery County School District (Maryland):

> Evaluation by Students
>
> Recognizing that each professional staff member must constantly seek ways to improve his or her effectiveness, a program of mutual and reciprocal annual evaluation by subordinates will be implemented for all unit members. This program will include evaluation of principals, classroom teachers, librarians, pupil services personnel and other unit members working with students, by students; and assistant principals and principals by teachers. All evaluative material will be confidential and for the sole use of the unit member being evaluated. Unit members are encouraged to share the results of the data and their plans for improvement with those individuals who have participated with them in the reciprocal evaluation process.

Is this the type of clause we need in collective agreements to protect teachers against the indiscriminate use of a technique such as peer evaluation?

Self-Observation (via videotaping)

Some writers on evaluation claim that one of the most potentially powerful forms of self-evaluation is the opportunity "to see ourselves as others see us" through video and/or audio recordings. The use of electronic recording technology seems to have great intuitive appeal, yet because of the many ways in which videotaping is used in supervising instruction, it is difficult to say whether or not it is generally helpful.

My experience with the use of videotaping is limited. We did try an informal experiment at the school a number of years ago where some teachers, on an optional basis, videotaped lessons. The quality of the tapes was, at best, on a par with home movies, yet the teachers involved did find it interesting to see themselves and their students on tape.

Generally, the teachers felt that the approach helped them to see such things as personal mannerisms, the amount of talking they were doing, and their personal appearance. Little, if any, mention was ever made of actual teaching behaviour.

In the United States, some districts are using videotapes in some phase of their evaluation process. Highland Park (Dallas) for example, formalizes the use of this medium to a considerable degree. Forms designed for the teacher to use for self-appraisal are correlated with the personnel evaluation form which the principal performing the evaluation uses.

The procedures followed are standardized. A teacher schedules a class for videotaping. Following the taping, the teacher views the tape privately and uses an evaluation instrument prepared locally as a guide for making the analysis. The teacher summarizes his/her analysis on another form that is forwarded to the principal and is ultimately filed in the teacher's personnel file.

Thompson and Skinner have provided the following outline of uses of videotaping technology in education:

Uses of Videotape Technology:

1. The use of microteaching techniques to focus on and shape teacher behaviour.

2. The use of videotaped classroom situations to supplement direct classroom observation and field experiences.

3. The development of instructional materials for both preservice and inservice teacher education programs.

4. The development of simulated classroom materials.

5. Immediate feedback of teaching performances of inservice and preservice teachers.

6. Analysis of and research on teacher behaviour, pupil behaviour, and pupil-teacher interaction.

7. Supervisory analysis of student teaching and of inservice teaching.

8. Application to general and special teaching methods.

In their work they cautioned, "installing videotaping capability before teachers themselves see the purpose and unique contributions of videotaping will only lead to confusion and disenchantment".

It appears that one of the greatest problems with the use of videotape is that it often leaves teachers wondering exactly what it is they are supposed to look for on the tape. In many cases, teachers viewing videotape end up confronted by the same problem that confronts the live observer, namely, too much to see and record.

Extensive review of the literature related to videotaping of teachers in classrooms reveals that this technique can be effective in changing both attitudes and performance, if carefully used and if certain conditions are created and met. These conditions should give teachers the incentive to use this approach, and conceptual knowledge about what to attend to when analyzing a taped lesson. (Ellett and Smith, 1975)

Overall, audiotape and videotape recorders provide the teacher with a vehicle for capturing teaching behaviour on a permanent basis. Recording instructional behaviour permits the teacher to listen to and/or view the performance of his or her behaviour at his or her convenience. In this manner, the teacher is not totally dependent on memory in the self-assessment process. Yet, as teacher representatives, we must remain sensitive about the use of electronic devices, and ensure that these tools are not used without the teacher's knowledge and consent.

Management by Objectives

Over the past decade, there has been an increased interest in the use of the MBO approach to evaluation in the educational organization. Regardless of the title -- contract plans, job targets, performance objectives, performance improvement commitments, etc., -- the recurring commonality is some form of goal setting between the teacher and the supervisor. Common to all of these plans is a basic procedure whereby the teacher works with one evaluator throughout the process that begins with diagnosing areas of weakness, developing strategies for overcoming identified weakness, and evaluating the degree to which objectives have been accomplished.

The question arises, "What, if any, action will be taken in the event that a teacher does not accomplish his or her stated objectives?" That depends on the purpose of the approach.

In the Halton County Board of Education (Ontario) approach to teacher evaluation, there are two distinct streams into which teachers are placed near the beginning of the process. Figure 1 (Appendix A) is a simplified diagram of the process.

One of the most important aspects of the Halton System is that there is a clear separation between formative and summative processes. Teachers are well aware of their "status" and those working on developmental goals are in a non-threatening atmosphere. In reality it is an opportunity for experienced teachers to take initiatives in program, skill development, and other related areas.

Turning to another approach, the teacher performance evaluation (TPE) model has been implemented in a number of jurisdictions in the United States. TPE and other related evaluation systems were developed in conformity to state laws geared to the dismissal of teachers with unsatisfactory performance. Figure 2 (Appendix B) outlines in a simplified form the process.

It is not the essential elements of the plan that make them unlike other models in which the sole stated purpose is to help improve instruction. Rather, the difference in purpose leads to subtle differences in implementation practices. Whereas the Halton goal-setting framework seems designed to hold the evaluator accountable on an equal basis with the teacher, the TPE frameworks seem designed to hold teachers accountable.

These are subtle differences, but they are important ones in the sense of teacher morale and commitment to improvement. (Ryan/Hickcox, 1980)

In summary, reviews of teacher evaluation techniques suggest that goal-setting approaches built on mutual trust are an effective technique when the purpose of evaluation is to improve teacher performance through a professional development program tailored to the needs of the teacher.

If the purpose of teacher evaluation is to rank or compare teachers for administrative purposes, teachers should not be a party to such approaches.

Conclusion

Teacher evaluation is becoming increasingly an integral part of the educational climate. Unfortunately, this presentation on the various teacher evaluation assessment techniques currently in use does not present an overly positive picture. It would have been much nicer had I been able to lay out for you a set of tried and true teacher assessment mechanisms all geared to the improvement of instruction. To have done so would have distorted reality.

As federation leaders we must recognize just how weak teacher appraisal technology really is. At this point in time there simply are not in place valid and reliable procedures for evaluating teacher effectiveness. About the best advice we can provide our constituent groups regarding the evaluation problem is to: (1) ensure that natural justice provisions are in place to assist in avoiding capricious or arbitrary administrative action; (2) press for non-threatening evaluation programs leading to self-growth and self-development; and (3) oppose any form of evaluation designed for purposes of comparing teachers and rewarding or punishing them.

As was said at the beginning of this presentation -- "PROCEED WITH CAUTION".

APPENDIX A

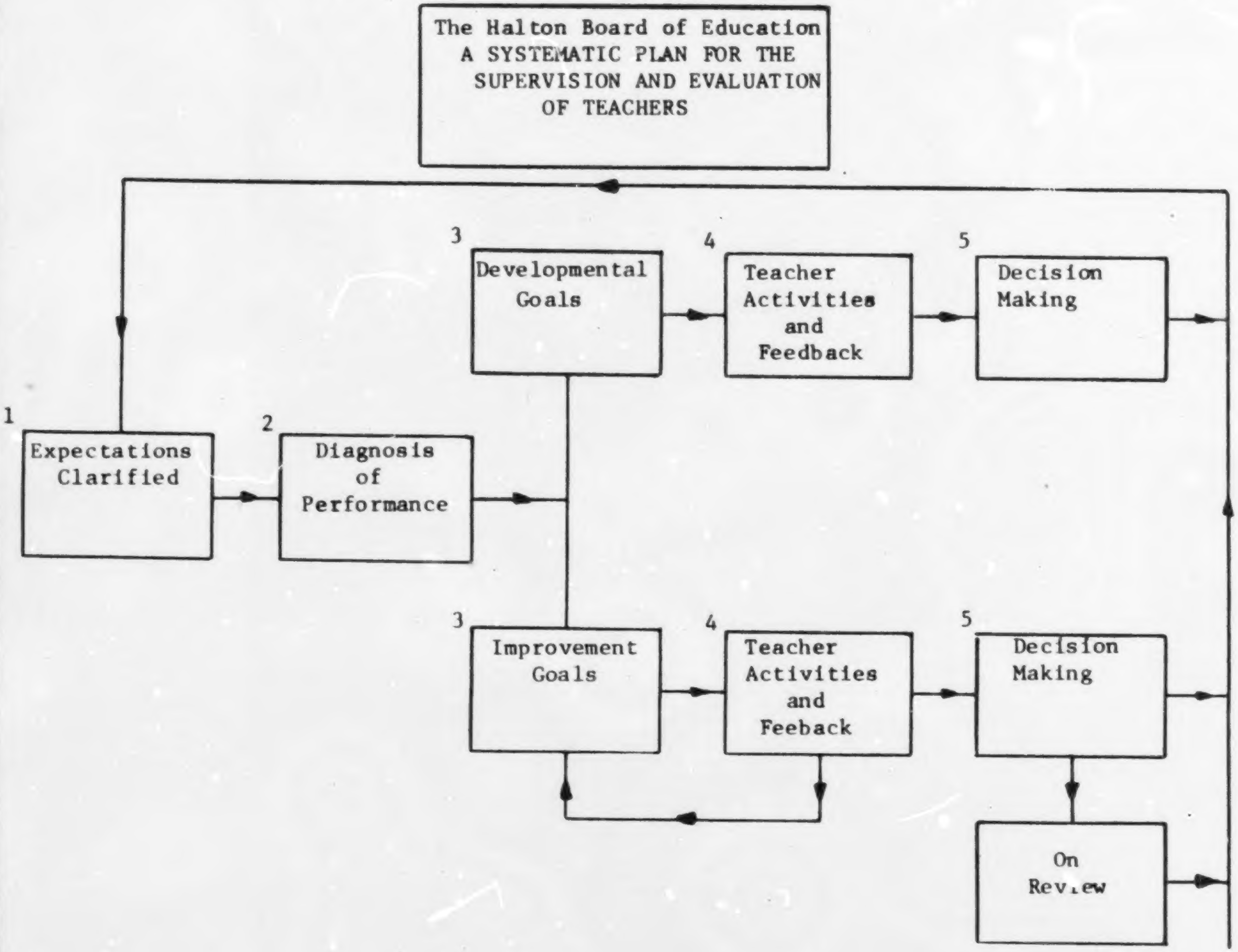
The Halton Board of Education
A SYSTEMATIC PLAN FOR THE
SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION
OF TEACHERS
1
Expectations Clarified
2
Diagnosis of Performance
3
Developmental Goals
4
Teacher Activities and Feedback
5
Decision Making
3
Improvement Goals
4
Teacher Activities and Feeback
5
Decision Making
On Review

Figure 1. The Halton Board of Education Plan

APPENDIX B

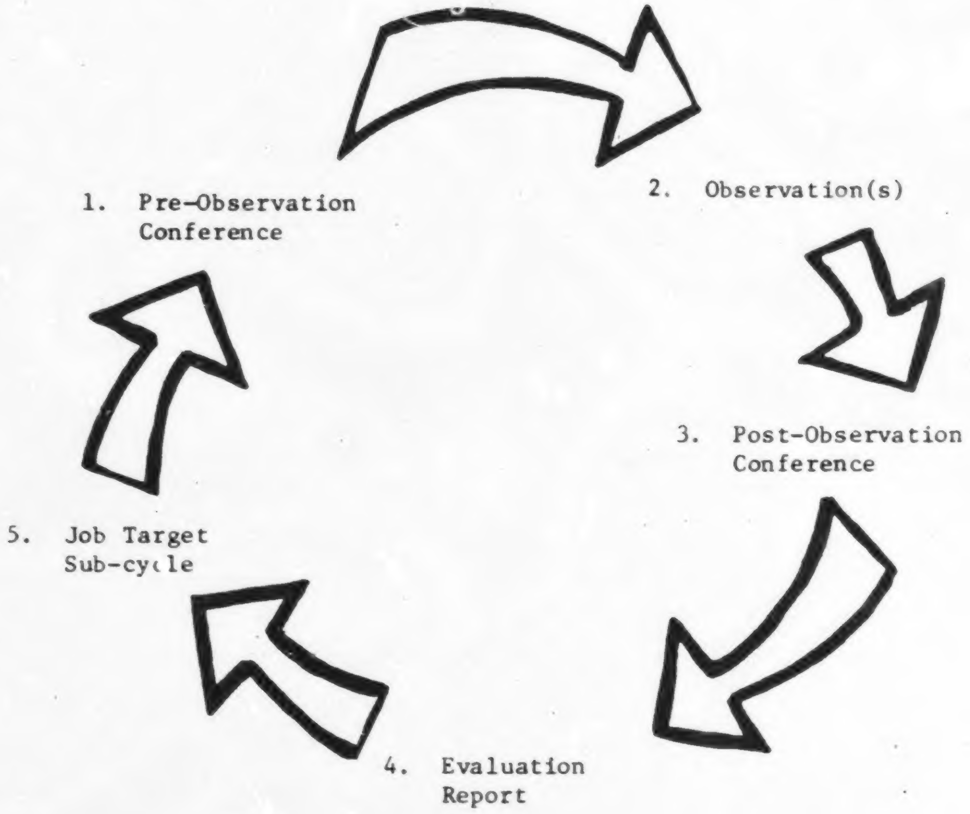

Figure 2. The T.P.E. Cycle

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APPROPRIATE OUTCOMES OF EVALUATION

(Panel Presentation)

ROD CAMPBELL
New Brunswick Teachers' Association

In planning this presentation we met several times and tried to reflect a little on why we are here. We are at a conference on teacher evaluation and so immediately we are caught up in the business of trying to deal with that topic. What we thought we should do this morning is consider this whole business of the priority of teacher evaluation in terms of our organizations. Clearly it has some priority, because we are all busy people, and yet we have all travelled to Ottawa to meet for two and one half days. Therefore the topic must have some priority for us.

Our goals are probably different, but we are all in some fashion moved to learn more about this topic. My own motive for being here is a fairly simple, pragmatic one. I've been assigned as a staff person to an ad hoc committee to study teacher evaluation and produce a policy for our organization. So it seemed when the topic came up that it would be appropriate for me to be here. I know that Myrle Vokey and John Staples are working with government and school boards to try to come up with a common plan or policy for their province. Others are here because they want to rethink or look again at the policies in their own provinces.

But let's reflect a little bit on why teacher evaluation is of some concern to us. I don't think it's of concern so much at the insistence of the teacher organizations, although it might be commendable if we were here because we had this compelling desire to move forward to improve instruction across the country. Rather, we are here because school boards, ministries of education and school superintendents feel a public pressure to account for what's happening in schools. There has been a convergence of many factors -- fiscal restraint, declining enrolments, conservatism in politics, the back to the basics movement, creationism -- much of it a spillover from the United States. The coming together of these factors has created a kind of milieu where it seems that there must be accountability, and therefore some form of teacher evaluation. Those are, so to speak, the contextual variables for this meeting.

To our way of thinking, there has been an inordinate amount of emphasis placed on the whole question of teacher evaluation. And it's an emphasis that far outweighs the potential value of teacher evaluation for improving instruction in the classrooms of this country. But let me be more specific about that. The most commonly anticipated outcome of teacher evaluation in the minds of teachers and in the minds of school administrators is the dismissal of a teacher who has exhibited a severe deficiency in terms of the skills of teaching. That kind of emphasis is rarely talked about in all the discussions that go on about teacher evaluation. Yet it is foremost in the minds of teachers, and if we serve them in terms of our organizations, we have to reflect on that a bit.

Des Grady cited the Mary Elliot case in New Brunswick, an important citation for many reasons, but from my point of view it was just one of two cases of a teacher being dismissed for incompetence that we've dealt with in a period of twelve years of collective bargaining and grievances in our province. Maybe that is its real significance. There are lots of grievances going on, but rarely do they deal with teacher incompetence or impinge on the area of teacher evaluation. By other estimates, we are talking about less than one per cent of the teachers in this country when we talk about evaluating them for the purpose of "turfing them out" or, to use that other word, placing them on the "exit track". So we have to get a sense of perspective about this business. I don't think any of that summative side of evaluation is ever likely to lead to improvement in instruction and I think that is generally accepted. It is the prerogative of the employer to evaluate the employees in that light and for those administrative purposes and I think that is where it should be left. We deal with that through the collective bargaining process and we build in some protection for members so that there cannot be any frivolous dismissal of personnel on the basis that the school board doesn't like them, or the principal doesn't get along with them, or somebody thinks they are living a life that is not proper for a teacher in that community.

We do acknowledge that there is a need for some kind of evaluation to occur for administrative purposes. That falls into the summative or judgmental type of evaluation and can be used for promoting or transferring people, or sending them to work for the teachers' organization. I guess we have to recognize that. But I don't think any system of summative evaluation in this country has been developed to the point where we now have a clearcut way of identifying the very best person to be the department head in English or the vice-principal in a school. It still helps to know the school board chairman; it still helps to get along with the superintendent; it still helps not to make too many waves if you want that kind of promotion.

Apart from that, I truly believe that we are consuming enormous amounts of energy, enormous amounts of talent, and enormous amounts of money to develop procedures for something that rarely happens. Let me hasten to add that there is considerable anxiety among our members about this business of being "turfed out", of being placed on "the exit track", despite the fact that it is almost a non-event in this country. Many teachers worry themselves to death about something that is not going to happen and will never happen during their career. They might be more productive in their worries if they were concerned about layoffs. The consuming interest in the summative side of evaluation is enough to keep the ministry and board bureaucrats going for years, and the teacher organization bureaucrats busy defending the fortress, and we've done a fairly effective job at that. But this negative, threatening side of evaluation is such an emotional issue that it often leads us to develop nuclear weapons merely to deal with the rodent in the back yard.

When Ed Hickcox opened this conference with his keynote address he started out with a quote that said "Teacher evaluation is a disaster. The practices are shoddy, the principles are unclear. Recent work has suggested some ways to clarify the issues and to make procedures more equitable and reasonably valid, but one cannot yet point to a single exemplary system in which the practices come near to matching our knowledge." We started off there and I guess maybe we are swinging around and coming back there. Scriven seemed to be laying the blame on the universities. It may be that the universities have not provided sufficient leadership and are culpable in that regard; not having provided enough training, not having done enough research. Even so there has been an incredible amount of activity in the last decade and enormous advances have been made in the state of the art. We have had descriptions over the last couple of days of all of these systems that have been developed and all these procedures and approaches to formative types of evaluation. But if we come back to the question of improving instruction, I think that all the gallons of ink that have been spilled on this topic have contributed little to the improvement of instruction in this country or in fact in the United States. And again it is the accountability thrust that has pushed us to work. Since the employer said there was going to be evaluation, everybody now is trying to make it something meaningful and to see if there are some gains that can be made from this process. As a result we have spent millions of dollars in the United States and in Canada to produce the non-threatening, non-judgmental, objective, prescriptive, positive evaluation experience for teachers. Well, at best, in this country and I think as well in the United States, those principles are not put into effect. Moreover, sending the principal off to a two-day conference on clinical supervision is not going to convince any teachers that this wonderful person they have been working with for twelve years is now going to be humanistic, caring and respectful of them as colleagues and will want to come into the classroom to observe them in order to give the help they need. Where has the principal been for 10 years?

My inclination would be that, as teacher organizations, we have to rethink our priorities. And I toss out another hypothesis for you to think about this morning. I think more improvement of instruction in this country has resulted from improved teacher education programs, and in particular from better internships and practicums, than from any teacher evaluation process. There has been improved continuing education as well, despite our disparaging remarks about university professors and some of the courses they offer. Certification requirements have also been increased, and while there is no direct evidence that links them in a causal way to improved instruction, I think there have been some benefits from that. There is certainly a much better understanding of what constitutes effective teaching. And within every one of our organizations there is some kind of professional development program. I think those things have had more of an impact and less of a priority than we are giving to this topic. While it would be foolish for us to bury our heads in the sand about teacher evaluation, when we assign priority to it we should remind ourselves of the context, and not be so anxious about it, that we expend more of our limited resources than the topic warrants.

ERROL YOUNG

Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation

When we prepared these presentations, we struggled with the question, "What should the outcomes of teacher evaluation be?" Rod has called on us to re-examine our priorities and spend more time on the developmental aspects of teacher preparation and he has questioned whether we should spend time and resources in supporting a futile evaluation effort. Earlier in this seminar we have heard people who would convince us that there is little to gain from entering into the processes of teacher evaluation; rather, we should sit tight and provide teachers with an effective defence against evaluations which adversely affect their job security.

We were introduced to the concept of tracks. Our theme speaker postulated three tracks; the developmental track, the remedial track and the exit track. If you support this configuration, you must agree that there are definable products in the creative teacher who becomes more creative, the sick teacher who becomes well, or the inadequate teacher who is counselled into a more productive career. But again, Rod makes the point that there is little evidence to show that teacher evaluation is effective in producing any of these three products, and I would say not even the last, since most teachers on the exit track are unceremoniously dropped into the garbage can behind the school without regard for their professional or personal futures.

I would like to develop the point that the products from teacher evaluation are directly related to the processes used. I would like to affirm the possibility of positive products when the processes used are based on beliefs, attitudes and behaviours which make a positive outcome possible.

There are three positive products which can emerge from teacher evaluation:

1. The creative teacher is supported and becomes more creative.

2. The teacher in trouble is assisted and improves. And,

3. The teacher who is not succeeding and who cannot improve is counselled out of teaching.

The success in the endeavour on any of the three tracks is related to our view of teachers. Research tells us that teachers who are viewed as adults, as autonomous persons, as professionals in possession of a body of unique knowledge about teaching, tend to respond favorably to offers of help in the developmental, or improvement processes. If we view teachers as capable, and able to take responsibility for their own growth and development, they will willingly accept assistance in the developmental process. In another way, if we can accept that the teacher is the owner of the growth process, and we present ourselves as colleagues who are willing to help, then the teacher will accept our assistance. The view of teachers which in itself predicts failure is that teachers are powerless functionaries, standing ready to perform as ordered, and accountable for meeting the expectations of others in other-defined ways. Present approaches incorporate beliefs that place teachers in a one-down position, and again research is helpful in describing the teachers' response to the inferior position as negative and, in fact, rebellious.

The success in the endeavour in any of the three tracks lies in the processes used. Given that the "evaluator" may believe that a teacher is an autonomous equal, that belief has to be demonstrated in the approach to teacher evaluation. Again, the present methods fail in that they employ externally imposed criteria, and judgmental feedback. I contend that teachers will enter enthusiastically into evaluation processes which are self-initiated, and are based on criteria which they, themselves, have had a share in creating. There are three themes in a successful process which need to be developed:

1. the improvement of knowledge and skills in teaching,

2. the re-enforcement of the teacher as a decisionmaker in the classroom and in the school, and

3. the development of the skills of analysis and evaluation as a teaching competency.

If we integrate the concept of self-generated criteria, and the three themes, we can create a process which can be successful in supporting the improvement in teacher performance. I will develop one practical approach to describe what the integrated process would look like.

The process can be outlined as a series of questions. During a workshop with teachers the supervisor asks:

1. What are the criteria of effective teaching? What is your answer to the question, "An effective teacher is one who ...."

In working with staffs I have been impressed by the reliability of the group knowledge, and their ability to generate all, or nearly all, of the currently supported criteria.

2. How would you as an individual teacher rate each criterion, on the basis of importance, present level of knowledge, and your desire for further knowledge and skills?

Teachers who are asked to weigh the criteria, soon establish their own area of development, or remediation. Or, in entering the process for the first time, and in deciding who they can trust, they may choose a safe area on their way to a more sensitive area.

3. How can you plan to reach your goal? To expand your knowledge and skills in the chosen areas?

At this point teachers develop action plans which may include staff inservice, conference attendance, the use of consultants, or observing other teachers and having conversations with them.

4. How can I (the supervisor, helper, evaluator) help?

This question needs to be answered in the context of the entire group, or in an interview between the teacher and the supervisor. From this conversation comes the definition of the supervisor's role, and the joint knowledge of responsibilities in initiating and supporting teacher improvement or growth. Part of the supervisor's role may be to observe the teacher in action, to assist through the gathering of descriptive data, to establish the particular area on which the teacher should focus the improvement activities.

The basis of the success of the above approach is in the consistency of beliefs and processes. The supervisor respects the teacher as an adult and a professional, and involves the teacher all the way in decisions leading to growth and improvement.

In the long term, the most valued outcome is that teachers possess the skill for the analysis and evaluation of their own teaching. In Saskatchewan, we have considerable evidence to show that student teachers who learn this skill through training in clinical supervision, carry the skill into their teaching in their internship, and their classrooms as regular teachers.

Rod suggested that we review our priorities, and make some decisions about where we spend our dollars and our time. I would echo that, and agree that teacher education programs are important. One thing that sticks in my mind, though, is the knowledge that the best use of teacher resources that we can make is through the motivation and growth of existing school staffs, not in the change-over of one teacher for another. Barely one per cent of our teachers in Canada have any risk of starting out the exit track. Our efforts should be spent in influencing the actors in the educational stage to develop beliefs and processes supporting the teachers now out there in the classrooms. The outcomes of this support could be a profession which is motivated, has high self-esteem, and makes externally imposed evaluation relatively obsolete.

ROD ELKIN

Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Quebec

We started working on this presentation the first evening we were here, and I must say I enjoyed being in the group because it has given me a chance to reflect on what we have been doing and to see if through that process we can offer something that may be of use to you. What I'm going to do right now is try to talk about policy development, and suggest that we have had an interesting time on that, with someone from the East, someone from the West, and someone from Central Canada -- trying to bridge the gaps between our jurisdictions and see if we could agree upon the touchtones that we have experienced here.

It is our feeling that the lexicon that we are now using is inadequate. The phrase "teacher evaluation" is supposed to be neutral and unemotional, but for the most part, in our membership, it is not. Maybe we have to look for a new phrase. Maybe there are no euphemisms, but at least we have to think about them. "Teacher effectiveness" is a phrase that rings bells in peoples' heads sometimes too. Even "staff development" does that at times. I don't know what the answers are. "Teacher evaluation", as it is now currently used by the public, has nothing but negative connotations for our membership.

I don't believe that it is worth putting any energy into a policy where the only purpose is to deal with those people who are on an exit track. If the energy we put into this makes us think that we have contributed in some way to improving classroom instruction, then we are missing the boat. But I would like to suggest a policy that we might develop which would have the following framework to it. We hope that such a policy would have as its basis the idea of no surprises and everyone knowing where they stand. We like that idea. That is not everything but it's a lot better than what we've got in many of our jurisdictions. We suggest further that there be a complete separation of the development and improvement tracks from the review tracks. I'm using the word review to mean review for exit or review for reintegration at some point.

Now the first part of the policy the one that deals with development and improvement, would have to be a teaching effectiveness feedback system in the global sense, linked with research which identifies or suggests what constitutes good teaching. So far, I don't think I've seen such a system anywhere in the country, but I don't think it's impossible that we can develop one. As to the second part of that policy, the part of the policy dealing with review, I think we've already done a lot of work on that and can do additional work. For the most part we've used the collective agreement approach as a means of assuring due process. We have talked about the right to appeal, the access to a second level, grievance, external third party. All of those are possibilities according to the legal frameworks that we have in our provinces. But we could also provide something that I heard about in conversation at one of the tables -- a supportive dossier for those people who are in the exit mode. Surely there is another opportunity to put into practice some supportive work on behalf of our members. It may be very late, but it is also the only chance we have ever had to reach some of those teachers. We understand that FWTAO has a whole personal counselling program that I would like to know a lot more about and I'm sorry that I didn't have a chance to hear more about it here. I am wondering if they may offer us some new approaches, some new ways of looking at people in the exit mode, and maybe some new help for those people.

I think the implications are that policy should address the following areas. First, using the vocabulary that we have learned, we have to look at the presage variables, the process and content of initial teacher training programs. We have to work on this problem with the universities. We have to address the need for staff development and the building of teacher effectiveness through those programs. We also have to continue to work on working conditions. It seems to me that time is essential if people are going to counsel each other on staff. I don't think that time is available now. I heard of one program that was based upon peer evaluation. But it went down the drain because no one could find the time to make it work.

I am more than ever convinced that another one of those context variables, curriculum, must remain significantly within our domain. If we give it up, we give away another variable that is part of the process that we work with. I think our policies should also deal with staff training. In particular, we have to deal with the training of supervisory personnel, whoever they may be. And whether they are administrators, or counsellors, or peers and colleagues, they will need training. I also think it is absolutely essential that we develop a new relationship between the schools and the universities and that our relationship be based around action research, school-based research, whatever you want to call it. I think that is another element of a policy that we want to write.

So those are the elements: initial teacher training, working conditions, staff training, and this new relationship between the schools and the universities. I'm really glad I came to this workshop. I came with the idea that I wanted to see if there was anything new in the "art" going on out there. There wasn't, as far as I could see. But I have the feeling that there is a new imperative to work on this process together.